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THE REV. JAMES GORDON,

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VOLUME III.

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## E R R A T A.

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Page 5, line 6, for *alteration*, read *alternation*.

70, at line 19, read thus—Britain before the present war employed two hundred and ten thousand seamen, and above two millions and a half of tons of shipping, which at somewhat less than a hundred and fifty tons to each vessel at a medium constituted near sixteen thousand vessels.

81, line 11, for *very kind*, read *very different kind*.

86, line 8, for *still inferior*, read *little inferior*.

202, line 26, for *eiden-duck*, read *eider-duck*.

205, line 17, for *eight thousand*, read *eighty thousand*.

266, line 13, for *four millions*, read *forty millions*.

287, line last but one, for *diéns*, read *dúns*.





22

*The*  
**BRITISH ISLANDS.**

**The Islands**  
*Tell me, Ye  
 Poets, what  
 Ye  
 Poets*  
*Brassie Sound  
 Banwick  
 Greenburgh H.*  
**of Shetland**

Orkney Islands

HEBUDE ISLANDS

OF BRITAIN





---

# TERRAQUEA.

## THE BRITISH ISLANDS,

**C**OMPOSING a system of two very great, and above four hundred comparatively very small isles, lie westward of the Netherlands and Denmark, severed from the continent by the sea of Britain and the British channel, which communicate by the Strait of Dover. These islands have in general an undulating surface, abrupt in some parts with mountains, and almost every where supplied with abundance of water by springs, lakes, or rivers. Seated within the confines of the vast Atlantic ocean, and environed with boisterous seas, they differ much in the constitution of their air and weather from continental countries lying between the same parallels of latitude. Their portion of the atmosphere, replete with vapors exhaled from the Atlantic, is obscured with clouds, and in general presents a dark and gloomy sky. Moisture predominates; fogs oft appear; and rains are very frequent, but

## THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

comparatively seldom heavy. The weather is extremely variable and the seasons irregular, succeeding at uncertain intervals, and subject to frequent changes as to cold and heat; bleak weather in summer, and comfortably warm days in winter, being by no means uncommon. September and October are generally, but not always, more mild and serene than other months. The spring is accompanied with cold piercing winds from the north or east. But the air of the British islands, though very moist, is in a general sense far from insalubrious, for it is in a state of nearly perpetual ventilation, almost continually put in motion by gales of wind, or agitated by tempests. The temperature throughout the year is, on a comparison with the continent, remarkably mild. The extremes of heat or cold are seldom felt, or felt but for a short continuance, and the earth is clothed with almost perpetual verdure; neither the heats of summer imbrownning its surface, nor the snows of winter concealing its herbage long from the sight.

The aggregate of the areas of all these islands, all of which are united under one monarch, probably amounts to about eighty millions of English, or somewhat above forty-nine millions of Irish acres; and the aggregate of their inhabitants to about fifteen millions.

In order to enter more particularly into the description of the British islands, it may be expedient to class them according to certain situations without any regard to their magnitudes, considering this whole insular system as consisting of Britain, commonly

monly called Great \* Britain; the Isles on the eastern side of Britain; the Isles on the southern side of Britain; the Scilly Islands; the small Isles of the Severn Sea; the Isles on the western coast of Wales; the Isle of Man; Ireland; the Isles on the Irish coasts; the Hebrides; the Orkneys; and the Isles of Shetland.

## B R I T A I N,

THE greatest of all European islands, lies part-<sup>Site.</sup> ed from France by the British channel and the Strait of Dover; from the Netherlands, Germany, Denmark, and Norway, by the sea of Britain. The strait of Dover, scarce eighteen English miles across in the narrowest part, separates this great island from the French province of Picardie, the nearest continental tract, where stands Calais, between which and the neighbouring British port of Dover the chief intercourse subsists of Britain with France.

The form of this island, which can hardly be con-<sup>Figure.</sup> ceived to resemble any regular geometrical figure, has yet been conceived reducible to a triangle,

\* The epithet of Great, which is commonly prefixed to Britain, is supposed to have been originally given as a mark of pre-eminence above the rest of the British islands, all of which were called *Britanniæ*, or the Britains, by some of the ancients; but, as the same name of *Bretagne* has been given by the French to this island and to a province of France, it was necessary for the French at least to annex the epithet of grand or great to the island for the sake of distinction. The British Isles were named *Bretanides* by *Dionysius Periegetes*.



## THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

whose angular points are formed by the three extreme promontories of Britain, the Kentish Foreland, the Land's End, and Dungenby-head. Broadest in the south, it narrows to the north, but with great irregularity of shape, variously indented, more especially on the western side, by numerous inlets of the sea, which cause an alternate contraction and dilatation of its surface. Its indented figure is most conspicuous in the north, where the friths of Forth and Clyde, piercing from opposite sides, almost cut the island across, leaving between them a distance of only twenty miles; and where also the land is so broken by other arms of the boisterous ocean that, in all that great division of the island which is denominated Scotland, no spot can be found more than forty, and very few more than thirty, English miles distant, in a right line, from salt water.

Inlets.

Among the innumerable bays and other inroads of the deep, which break the shores of this great island, and render its line of coast so angled and irregular, but at the same time furnish a multitude of commodious harbors, ports, and roads for shipping, a few from their magnitude are more particularly exposed to notice, as the Severn sea, or Bristol channel, the Wash, the friths of Solway, Forth, Clyde, and Murray, and the long narrow inlet of Lough Erne.

The greatest of all the British inlets is the Severn sea, which advances near ninety English miles into the land, and is forty broad between the points of Hartland and Saint Govens. By the Wash is here meant that large frith or estuary, which enters be-

tween

tween the counties of Norfolk and Lincoln, alternately inundating and deserting its low flat shores to a great extent, according to the flux and reflux of the tide, to the danger of passengers who cross these shores without a due attention to this circumstance. A very dangerous alteration of the same kind takes place at the frith of Solway, where the peril is augmented by shifting quicksands; for, this whole bay, though surrounded with mountains, is but a flooded sandbank, where the tides from the setting of the currents are always very rapid, and where, particularly when the wind blows strong from the south-west, the waters rush upon the shores with a violence quite astonishing, as many unfortunate travellers have fatally experienced†. Lough Fine is the chief of the North-British inlets, penetrating with a breadth of three or four miles, and a depth of sixty or seventy fathoms, near fifty miles into the main land, besides that, if its length were reckoned from the head of Cantyre, above thirty miles more should be added to this extent.

Lough Fine is the most capacious of those noble stations for shipping, in which this island in general, but chiefly the western coast of North-Britain abounds; but the haven of Milford in the Welch county of Pembroke is commonly accounted, when considered in all circumstances at once, the most commodious of British ports, though it is capable of receiving great improvement by art. Within the bosom of this excellent haven are said to be five

† Gilpin's Tour in Scotland, London, 1789, vol. 2, p. 174  
—179.

bays, thirteen good roads, and sixteen creeks, in which at least a thousand of the greatest ships may lie in perfect safety, and without any inconvenience among themselves.

Projections.

Among the innumerable projections of land which the serrated form of this great island, particularly on the western side, presents to our view, that long peninsula cannot escape our notice, which contains the counties of Cornwall, Devon, and part of Somerset, stretching above a hundred and forty miles in length, and conceived by some, but not with sufficient reason, to bear a resemblance to the whole island in its figure. From the Shire of Argyle in North Britain projects a remarkable tongue of land, fifty English miles long and from about four to ten broad, composed of Knapdale and Cantyre; of which the latter, thirty miles long, and connected with the former by the low rocky isthmus of Tarbat only a mile broad, extends to within thirteen miles of the coast of Ireland. That part of Cheshire, which is confined between the friths or estuaries of the Dee and Mersey, though it projects not farther than the neighbouring coasts, may merit notice on account of the striking similitude, which it exhibits in its figure and aqueous boundaries, to the vast Asiatic peninsula of Arabia. On the coast of the county of Dorset is a very narrow isthmus called Chesil-bank, ten or twelve miles long, composed of huge heaps of pebbles, and connecting with the main land the peninsula of Portland, five miles long and two broad, famous for the quarries of excellent stone on its western side. This peninsula is called Portland island,



island, and sometimes deserves that name, for, when the noreast wind blows with violence, it bursts the feeble barrier of the Chesil-bank and pours the billows through the breach: but when the southwest wind regains the empire of the deep, it repairs the damage of the opposite current, reinstating the bank with vast coacervations of small stones †.

The western coast of Britain, so scooped into bays and other inlets by the attrition of the boisterous main, is almost throughout, high, rocky, and, for the greater part, mountainous. The eastern, on the contrary is generally low and flat, especially between the county of Kent and Scarborough in Yorkshire; but some parts also are more or less rocky, particularly from Scarborough northward to the counties beyond the river Tweed. The greater part of the northern coast from the bay of Thurso westward, is a shelving flat or inclined plain, through which the rivers descend in almost rectilinear channels to the sea. The southern coast is partly elevated and rocky like the western, and partly level and low like the eastern. The country rises variously to the interior parts from the shores around; more or less abruptly from the west; more or less gently from the east. The plan of the soil in South Britain seems to gain its summit about Rugby in Warwickshire, or the neighbouring part of the county of Northampton. Hence the main spine of the island runs norwestward and northward between the subsidiary springs of the Severn, Dee,

Plan of  
the soil.

† Gough's Edition of Camden's Britannia, London, 1789, vol. i. p. 48.

and

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and Weever, on one side, and those of the Trent on the other, to the Peak of Derby. Hence tending northward with an inclination to the west by Craven in the west of Yorkshire, it proceeds through North Britain, where, between the friths of Clyde and Forth, its least elevation is hardly a hundred and sixty feet above the level of the sea. Advancing with various flexures through the bases of mountains toward the northern extremity of the island, it is interrupted at Lough Neff by a singular chasm which cuts the land across from the ocean to the sea of Britain. Recommencing on the opposite side of this vast fissure, it directs its course northward beyond Lough Shin where it bends to the east, and takes its way along the heads of those rectilineal streams which flow through the smooth slope of Caithness.

Mountains,

The main spine of the island is not every where accompanied with mountains, particularly to the south of the Derbyshire Peak, where it is strengthened with no other eminences than a few hills; nor, especially in this part of its range, is its elevation above the neighbouring lands every where perceptible by the eye. The mountains of Britain, excepting a few which lie detached, and some which are collected into groups of inferior magnitude, are situate in, or near, the western maritime parts of the island. Here, where the jagged irregular shores correspond with the rugged face of the country, the mountains form extensive ranges, and with their bases and ramifications occupy three considerable tracts or portions of the land.

In

In that western prominent division of Britain Of Wales. which is bounded southward by the Severn sea, and is called the principality of Wales, a wide spreading chain of high, bleak, and rugged mountains runs from south to north, augmenting toward the north and norwest in width, asperity, and elevation. It fills in its progress large spaces of those counties, or divisions of Wales, which are distinguished by the names of Brecknock, Cardigan, Montgomery, Merioneth, and Carnarvon, particularly the two last, in which it spreads to such extent as to occupy great part of their areas. The appellation of Black Mountains, an appellation not incongruous to their sable hue and gloomy aspect, has been given to the southern, and to a northern part also of this formidable chain, in which some mountains and groups of mountains tower above the rest, conspicuous in rude sublimity. Such are Plinlimmon, Kader-Idris, and Snowdon. Plinlimmon, with a base of great extent, a boggy top, and a most uncomfortably dreary prospect from its summit §, lies partly in the county of Cardigan, partly in that of Montgomery. Kader-Idris in the shire of Merioneth, with a less elevated base, and perhaps also with a less elevated summit, than some other mountains in this chain, appears highest to the eye on account of the steepness of its peak or cliff, which is above half a mile long, and above a thousand feet in perpendicular altitude above the lower parts of the mountain. Its elevation above the level of the sea seems to be a little

§ Gough's Camden, vol. ii. p. 534.



more than nine hundred and fifty yards ||. Snowdon in Carnarvonshire is the highest of the Welch mountains, rising with its double head to the altitude of near twelve hundred yards above the sea, mantled with snow about eight months in the year, and commanding a vast prospect over most of South Britain, into Ireland, and even into North Britain\*.

In the rugged group of mountains with which Snowdon is invested, and which are to be regarded as parts of the base, or as ramifications of this colossal eminence, is Penmaen Mawr, which ends abruptly at the Irish channel in a precipice fourteen hundred feet in perpendicular height. Along the face of this frightful steep, at a considerable height above its foot, against which rolls the sea, a road is made, with a wall next the water, five feet high, to diminish the danger and terror of passengers.

Beside the primary range of Welch mountains, other chains proceed in various directions. The whole assemblage forms an Alpine scene, wild, romantic, and picturesque beyond conception: Vast fragments of rock, black and dismal to the view, piled one on another to an awful height; numerous little lakes lying variously scattered, amid crags and tremendous precipices, and streams without number pouring in cataracts from the steeps, or wind-

|| A Gentleman's Tour in Monmouthshire and Wales, London, 1775, p. 114—117. Gough's Camden, vol. ii. p. 540, 541.

\* Pennant's Wales, vol. ii. p. 160—170. Gough, vol. ii. p. 551. Letters from Snowdon, &c.

ing

ing in long meanders through deep vallies, whose woods and verdure often make a pleasing contrast to the dark naked rocks above.

A chain of Welch mountains running to the north-east, and separating the waters which flow to the Dee from those which go to augment the Severn, is connected by a ridge of in general no very sensible elevation to the main spine of the island in the Peak of Derby. This elevated bleak region, called the Peak, is the commencement of an extensive chain of mountains, which, directing its course toward the north-west, and separating Yorkshire from Lancashire, spreads widely to the west on the side of Westmoreland, so as to over-run most of that county together with part of Cumberland; but, again contracting into narrower limits, proceeds into North Britain, parting the county of Cumberland from that of Northumberland.

Of mid  
Britain.

In this long range, which has been called by Mr. Camden the British Appennine, a range much longer than that of Wales, more elevated in some parts, more continuous, and perhaps also superior in romantic beauty, the mountains of Pendle, Pen-nigent, Ingleborough, and Wharfedale, are eminent above the rest in superior majesty, beside those of Skiddaw, Helvellyn, and Cross Fell, in Cumberland.

Pendle, extending its roots into Lancashire and Yorkshire, rises with its peak to the elevation of more than eleven hundred and thirty yards. Pen-nigent, situated in that division of Yorkshire which is called the West Riding, appears to have an altitude

tude of thirteen hundred yards. Ingleborough in the same Riding towers to the height of almost thirteen hundred and thirty yards above the ocean, rising from a base about twenty-five miles in circuit, so gradually on the south as to be ascendible in one place on horseback, but abruptly with precipices on the north and west, and ending in a flat summit near a mile in compass, round which are the ruins of an ancient wall †. Wharnside, in the same district of country, seems to be little, if at all, inferior to the last in elevation ‡. The height of Skiddaw, a lofty mountain with two heads, is said to be eleven hundred yards §; that of Helvelling eleven hundred and eight; and that of Cross Fell eleven hundred and thirty ||. We may also observe that the elevation of Cheviot in the county of Northumberland, which gives name to the range of Cheviot-hills, is said to be almost nine hundred yards.

Of the objects of curiosity contained in these mountainous tracts, the beauties of which, particularly toward the western coast where very fine lakes diversify the scenery, are such as no pen or pencil can

† Gough, vol. iii. p. 42, 43.

‡ According to Jefferys in *Hurtley's Curiosities of Malham*, London, 1786, the altitude of Wharnside is 5340 feet, that of Ingleborough 5280, and that of Pennigent, 5220; but certainly some error has attended the mensuration. These, and all other mountains of South Britain, are so far below the region of permanent snow, that sheep are pastured on their tops during some months every year.

§ Gough, vol. iii. p. 182.

|| Donald's Mensuration in *Hurtley*.



adequately describe, I shall mention only Malham Cove and Gordale, both near the village of Malham in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

Malham Cove, about half a mile north of the village, is a perpendicular rock of limestone three hundred feet high, elevating its towering front to the south from the sides of two reclining hills, rising with such a curved surface, and so widening from the bottom upwards, as to be compared to an amphitheatre, but open to the south, and visible with the naked eye from Whitemoor near Colne in Lancashire at the distance of twenty miles. This cove, which in itself is a very noble object, has in wet weather the additional beauty of a magnificent cascade pouring from its top \*. Gordale, situate a little farther from Malham, toward the noreast, is an awful chasm, or "stupendous pavilion of fable rock," three hundred yards in perpendicular height, formed by immense masses of stone, whose upper parts, projecting sixty feet beyond their bases, contract, at the height of two hundred and forty feet, the breadth of the yawning above. From the interior end of this vast grotto bursts a stream of water, which after falling in a cataract, glides along the bottom of the fissure †.

The chain of mountains called the Cheviot-hills, by which the British Appennine is continued into North Britain, takes a direction toward the south-west, and terminates in the county of Galloway at

\* Hurtley, p. 34—42. Gough, vol. iii. p. 42.

† Hurtley, p. 57—64.

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the inlets called Lough-Ryan and Glenluce-bay. These mountains rise to their greatest height, under the name of Lowthers or Lauders, about the middle of their course, and nearly at equal distances from the ocean and the sea of Britain, where they form a great circular group, in which lie the sources of the rivers Clyde, Annan, Tweed, and Nith. The Cheviots are also observed, particularly in the eastern part of the range, where they border South-Britain, to have generally their steepest sides more toward the north than toward the south. From the lofty Cheviot "ridge, an inferior range of hills branches in an easterly direction, and, stretching by Soutra and Lammermuir, whose names they assume, terminates at St. Abb's head, the southern extremity of the frith of Forth †".

The country, from the Cheviot ridge and that of Soutra and Lammermuir, northward quite to the Grampian mountains, forms an extensive plain stretching across the island from sea to sea, anciently denominated Strathmore; or the great valley, a name now confined to a small portion of this wide space. This valley, however, which constitutes a great proportion of the Scottish Lowlands, is not without hills, two ranges of which, in particular, vary the face of this otherwise level tract. Of these the more southerly, called the Pentland-hills, extends from the vicinity of the river Clyde to the frith of Forth: The more northerly, comprehending the Kilsyth and Campsey, the Ochill and Sidley

† Newte's Tour, London, 1791, p. 403, 404.

hills,

hills, runs nearly parallel to the Grampians from the vicinity of Dunbarton to the mouth of the Tay §.

On the north of the friths of Clyde and Forth rises the lofty Granzbain, or Grampian chain, which extends almost across the island from the vicinity of Dunbarton to that of Aberdeen. Stretching from Logh Lomond noreastward to Athol, the Grampians there divide into two main branches, one of which runs eastward to Bray-Mar in Aberdeenshire, the other northward to Sutherland. The Grampian chain, which makes a stupendous and almost impassable barrier across the island, may be considered to be the commencement, as it also constitutes a considerable part, of the Alpine region distinguished by the appellation of the Scottish Highlands, a region which occupies nearly half of Scotland, comprehending all those parts of the western coast and interior country, which lie northward of the Frith of Clyde, Logh Lomond, and Logh Tay.

This is by far the most extensive, savage, and dreary, of the three great mountainous tracts which Britain contains, composed mostly of blue rocks and dusky mountains piled together in wild and surprising disorder, the interstices of which are impassable with bogs, the sides jagged, embrowned with heath, and furrowed with innumerable torrents tumbling from the crags into low chasms or glens, some of which are so narrow, deep, and dismal, as never to be visited by the direct rays of the sun ||. Crag-

§ Newte, p. 405, 406.

|| Smollet's Present State.



gy and steep in the extreme, these mountains in general are not of great elevation, but rear their heads however in some places to such a height as to retain about their summits vast beds of snow unthawed throughout the year.

Considered in a general view, the mountains of the Scottish Highlands rise abruptly from the western shore, and run toward the northeast in ridges of great length, diminishing and expanding as they approach the eastern coast, so as to leave between them and the British sea large spaces of lowland, especially in that tract which extends along the sea from Aberdeen to Inverness. But between Caithness and Sutherland one of these ridges advances quite to the deep, and forms a lofty steep promontory impending over the waves, called the Ord of Caithness, along the face of which is a road still more frightful to travellers than that of Penmaen Mawr in Wales. The vallies, called Straths, in the language of the country, which separate these extensive ridges, are mostly very narrow and very long, admitting the ocean at their western extremities in such manner as to form numerous inlets named Loghs \*, and, running back in an irregular manner into the interior country, where they sink in many places, and thereby furnish basons for a great number of noble fresh-water lakes, which are mostly very narrow in proportion to their length.

\* In Ireland and the west of Scotland the term Lough is applied indifferently to lakes and inlets of the sea, but in the east of Scotland to lakes only.

The Straths abound in pasturage, which is the case also with large spaces in the mountains. Patches of ground which admit culture are found about the bottoms of the hills, and forests of oak, fir, and other timber, many miles in extent, cover the sides of the mountains in some places.

Three districts of the Scottish Highlands "on account of the singularity of their appearance demand a particular description. These are Cowal in Argyleshire, the Moor of Rannagh in Perthshire, and a tract of land on the western coast of the shire of Ross. The mountains of Cowal, rugged and abrupt, in a rugged and abrupt country, rise suddenly from their bases to their summits, and are fantastically interspersed among one another as by a mighty whirlwind; while the glens between them resemble a number of pits, deep in proportion to the height of the natural walls that surround and form them. Hence the district of Cowal is humourously called Argyle's Bowling-green. The Moor of Rannagh is an elevated plain twenty miles every way, from the hills of Glen-Lyon in the center of Scotland to Ben-Nevis in Loghabar, wholly uncultivated and uninhabited. The tract to which I allude in Ross-shire, including part of Coygagh, Asynt, and Eyderachuilis, is twenty-four miles in length and from eight to ten in breadth," lower than other parts of the Highlands, but more broken and rugged, appearing as if hundreds of mountains had been dashed into thousands of fragments confusedly scattered on an extensive plain, where "rocks after rocks

exhibit indubitable traces of some great convulsion of nature \*."

One of the most remarkable of the Scottish mountains is Ben-Fouaish in the east of Rossshire, rising nearly in the form of a rick of hay to the height of fourteen hundred yards, and ending in a flat summit, or plain, three miles long and half a mile broad †.

A most extraordinary glen is one called Glenmore, which runs in a straight line quite across the land from the Sound of Mull to the Frith of Murray, forming a complete chasm or separation between the northern and southern Highlands, fifty-nine miles long, exclusive of the salt inlets which it admits at its extremities, and from a mile to a quarter of a mile broad. It contains three excellent lakes, Lough Neefs, Lough Oigh, and Lough Loghie, which occupy its whole breadth, and so much of its length also as to leave but twenty-two miles and a half of land ‡. On the southern side of this admirable valley, at its western end, and near the military station called Fort William, the mountain of Ben-Nevish raises its towering summit, reputed the highest of all Britain; its altitude above the level of the ocean being reckoned fourteen hundred and fifty yards, and its head covered with snow throughout the summer; yet Ben-y-Bourd at

\* Newte, p. 409, 410.

† Newte, p. 411.

‡ Anderson's Account of the Hebrides and western coasts of Scotland.



Bray-Mar is suspected to have a still greater elevation §.

Of the various masses, ridges, and concatenations <sup>A rock.</sup> of rock, which may be observed on the coasts and in the interior parts of Britain, that which appears most worthy of notice is an immensely long ridge or wall of rock, which extends quite across North-Britain, from southwest to northeast, parallel to the main ridge of the Grampians, crossing Lough Lomond on one side, and on the other the river Tay, where it forms a cataract called Campsey Linn. This extraordinary natural wall, continuous excepting some disruptions and dislocations, has its perpendicular sides, smooth as if chiseled, sometimes toward the south, and sometimes toward the north, exhibiting a curvilinear edge like a swine's back, and rising from five to forty feet high, but in some places hardly appearing above the surface of the ground ||.

Beside the Alpine tracts and mountainous ranges <sup>Smaller</sup> already noticed, some mountains of inferior note are <sup>eminences.</sup> found, particularly in the neighbourhood of Wales and in Scotland. In the counties of Monmouth, Hereford, and Salop, which bound the principality of Wales on the eastern line, the country, though rich and fertile, is rough with eminences, particularly Monmouth, which was formerly reckoned a part of Wales, and seems to merit still a place in that division. Among these eminences is the Wre-

§ Pennant.

|| Newte, p. 512, 513.

ken in Salop, a high and large ridge, rising to the elevation of fourteen hundred feet, and environed by a plain; and Clee-hills eighteen hundred feet high, visible at the distance of sixty miles round\*. A high stony ridge called Malvern, or Mo-vern, hills, extends in a considerable length from north to south, between the counties of Hereford, and Worcester, displaying its height to the eye with full advantage on account of the bordering plains†.

A remarkable ridge is that of Cotswold, which on one side has hardly any sensible elevation, as it rises almost uniformly through the space of a hundred miles from the east to the middle of Gloucestershire, where it breaks at once with a steep declivity into the vast and beautiful valley of the Severn, which it overlooks with majestic height, stretching beyond the bounds of Gloucestershire both toward the north and toward the south‡. In fact it seems to be continued by Edgehill in Warwickshire and the Chiltern in the county of Bucks, so as to bound on the northern side the great valley of the Tems, parting the springs of this great river from those of other streams on that side. It appears also to be connected on the other side by a ridge to the southern boundary of the vast vale of the Tems, which is a range of hills three hundred miles in length, stretching through the southern counties from Cornwall eastward to Kent, and swelling out in

\* Gough, vol. ii. p. 407.

† Sullivan's Tour, vol. ii. p. 24.

‡ Gilpin on the Wye, London, 1789, p. 11.

its course into a knot of mountains called the Mendip-hills in the county of Somerset.

In the last named mountains is Okey, or Wokey, <sup>Caverns.</sup> hole, a cavern of much greater note than magnitude, two hundred feet long, twenty broad, from three to forty high, and watered at the bottom by a clear cold stream, which, after its issue from this gloomy den, is applied to the purpose of turning several mills. Of a great number of other subterranean cavities found in Britain, some readers may expect a few to be noticed. In the northern extremity of the kingdom, in the shores of a promontory which runs northward from Scrabster in Cathness, are many horrid caverns communicating with deep gloomy pits, or abysses, within land, from which abysses the roaring of the sea is heard, and at their bottoms its white spray, or foam, is seen. About the huge mountain of Ingleborough are some great caverns, in one of which, called Weathercote-cove, a cataract formed by a stream bursting from the side makes a perpendicular fall of seventy-five feet.

The mountainous country called the Derbyshire-peak boasts of the three famous British caverns of Peak's-hole, Pool's-hole, and Elden-hole. The last is a tremendous fissure in a limestone rock in the side of a grassy hill, about four miles east of Buxton, which descends perpendicularly to the depth, as is supposed, of several hundred yards, and in which the water, which lies in its lower parts, is gradually rising higher. Scarcely a mile from Buxton is Pool's-hole, which proceeds with a kind of ascending zigzag seven hundred feet into the bowels of  
the



the hill. Peak's-hole, bearing among the vulgar a much less decent name, has its entrance in the face of a most formidable precipice in the side of a mountain, at the village of Castletown, and, like Pool's-hole, consists of a series of huge communicating caverns, extending above two thousand two hundred feet in length, at the depth of six hundred and twenty feet below the surface of the mountain. About thirty-five yards within its mouth, which is fourteen yards high and ten wide, are a few miserable cottages inhabited by spinners of pack-thread; and through its interior cavities flow subterranean rivers fifty feet broad. This great and celebrated cavern is suspected to have a yet unascertained communication with others. One of a much superior magnitude is not far distant, into which some persons have descended to the depth of nine hundred and eighty feet below the surface of the superincumbent earth, and in which they have explored their way through a length of three miles without coming to the end §.

In the parish of Durness, in the county of Sutherland, is a cave of extraordinary dimensions, three hundred feet wide in some places, and above two hundred high. Through a perforation in the arch of this huge cavern, a little way, within its mouth,

§ Sullivan's Tour, vol. ii. page 115. Peak's, Pool's, and Elden-hole are three of what are vulgarly called the Seven, or according to others, the Nine Wonders of the Peak, too vulgarly indeed to deserve much farther notice, consisting of a mountain, a house, medicinal springs, &c. See Gough's Camden, vol. ii. p. 302, 316—323.

a stream

a stream of water descends, and is received into a subterranean lake of, as yet, unknown extent \*.

After the above brief specimens of natural caverns, I shall give only one specimen of those which are the workmanship of man, very small indeed in comparison of the immense excavations which have been made by miners. In Kent and other southern parts cavities are found, which have been formed in hills of chalk, with narrow mouths, but wide within, used perhaps formerly as places of refuge, or of concealment of goods, in times of danger. In the county of Essex a horizontal passage conducts to an assemblage of caverns, contained in the space of about six acres, in a hill of chalk in the parish of Chadwell, under a stratum of chalk two hundred feet thick, the largest of which caverns is eighty feet deep ||.

The Chiltern of Buckinghamshire above noticed, Chalks. and other ridges of hills in the southeast of Britain, are composed of chalk, the strata of which substance seem to be almost all confined to the eastward of a line drawn from Dorchester in Dorsetshire northeastward by Dunstable in the county of Bedford to that of Norfolk. Chalk extending in wide strata immediately under a shallow soil “ produces a peculiar style of landscape, an impoverished kind, without the grandeur of the rocky country, or the cheerful luxuriance of the Sylvan. It runs out commonly into wide diffusive downs, swelling into

\* Sinclair's Statistical View of Scotland.

|| Pennant's Tour from Chester to London.

frequent

frequent elevations. The great central patria of chalk, if I may so phrase it, seems to be in the contiguous parts of Berkshire, Wiltshire, Dorsetshire, and Hampshire. From this vast bed three principal ridges of it extend. The first, leaving Berkshire, crosses the Tems, and, running northward through Buckinghamshire, enters Bedfordshire, and ends about Dunstable, beyond which chalk is never found. A second, running eastward, occupies great part of Surrey, and, turning near Dartford to the south-east, continues in that direction, forming high grounds till it meets the sea abruptly at Dover. The third great ridge takes a more southerly course, occupying a vast tract, near eighty miles in length, though scarce any where above four miles broad, which is known by the name of the South Downs of Suffex. Portsdown may be considered as a branch of this ridge. Beside these three great ridges, it appears in a few other detached parts, but very rarely †."

Marshes.

Very different from the high rocky mountains, and dry chalky ridges of this island, are some low, flat, marshy, and, I may add, very insalubrious, though very fertile, tracts on its eastern side. Such is Romney marsh on the southern coast of Kent, containing an area of about fifty thousand acres ‡: such are several parts of the coast of Essex: and such, above all others, is the Great Level of the Fens, or Bedford Level, which borders the Wash, and is

† Gilpin's Northern Tour, London, 1788, vol. i. p. 3—5.

‡ Campbell's Political Survey of Britain, Dublin, 1775, vol. ii. p. 404.

by



by far the most extensive tract of this kind in Britain, expanding, with a breadth of more than thirty miles, and a length of more than fifty, into the counties of Norfolk, Cambridge, Huntingdon, and Lincoln. In this fenny tract is contained what is called the isle of Ely in Cambridgeshire, an island in fact in time of floods, and even at all times by surrounding channels of water, and the district of Holland in Lincolnshire. The whole expanse much resembles the province of Holland in the Netherlands; being involved in frequent fogs; level throughout, so that the spire of a church may be seen at the distance of thirty or forty miles; drained by innumerable great ditches or canals; and fortified against inundations with great banks of earth; yet often overflowed to a wide extent §.

Similar to the marshes in softness and moisture, Mosses, but different in some circumstances, are those bogs of dark, fibrous, miry matter, which are found in the northern parts of Britain, and which there, as in the north of Ireland, are termed Mosses. Some of these are seen as far south as Cheshire and even Huntingdonshire ||; but the most southern of the English counties, in which any considerable quantity of this kind of bog is contained, seems to be Lancashire, where, beside others, is Chat-moss, extending ten miles in length, and seven or eight in breadth. Farther north, in Scotland, the quantity is greater. These bogs are subject to a peculiar

§ Gough, vol. ii. p. 126, 142.

|| Gough, vol. ii. p. 155, 428, 435.

kind of accident. Augmented through ages by gradual accessions of water, and by the alternate putrefaction and reproduction of the coarse vegetables on the surface, the mass of thick fluid substance swells at length to such a magnitude, that it can no longer be sustained by the matted crust of interwoven roots of plants with which it is covered, so that the bog bursts where its inclination is greatest, and pours a deluge of black mud over the adjacent fields. One of many instances which might be particularized is that of Solway-moss, a bog of about sixteen hundred acres in the county of Cumberland, which opened on one side in the year 1771, and spread an inundation of inky matter over five hundred acres of improved land\*.

General  
face.

Britain, with its diversified elevation and expanses, presents collectively to our observation an extremely varied face, but in general a scenery of uncommon beauty. Its greater part is of a level nature, or rather a gently waving surface, uneven with easy slopes and gradual elevations. The most southern counties are much varied with hills and dales; but, in the interior and eastern parts to the south and east of the Peak of Derby, we scarcely find any elevation worth notice.

The mountains of Wales, in their approach to the Severn Sea, diminish into soft fertile hills, which again expand into sloping plains shelving to the banks of several fine rivers. These verdant hills, combined in prospect with other agreeable

\* Gilpin's Northern Tour, vol. ii. p. 134—144.

objects,

objects, render the southern coast of this principality a charming region, not easily rivalled in rural beauty. The vallies of this part of Britain are mostly beautiful to an extraordinary degree. The most celebrated, though in reality not the most delightful, is the vale of Clwyd, which extends through the counties of Denbigh and Flint, twenty-six miles in length, seven in breadth, enriched with culture, beautified with woods, watered by a meandering limpid stream of the same denomination, and surrounded by mountains on all sides, except next the sea, where it ends in a marsh. Perhaps no part of Wales, or even of all Britain surpasses in pleasure of landscape the county of Montgomery, where the soft and agreeable are happily blended with the bold and sublime. Here stupendous ramparts of grotesque mountains, whose distant view gives the idea of majesty without any mixture of terror, appear to environ large fertile tracts of cornfields and meadows planted with hedge-rows, well wooded hills and fine vallies.

If from the mountainous land of Wales we carry our view eastward to the more level parts of Britain, we shall be perhaps not less pleased with the aspect of the country. As the rude elevated tracts of this noble island abound in those vast and sublime objects which create astonishment, and fill the soul with a kind of awful delight, so the lower and more level are replete with beauties of a softer kind, beauties which result from the improvement of nature by industry and art. In such perhaps no part of the world excels, perhaps none equals, the southern parts



parts of Britain, where meliorated by a most spirited agriculture, the country appears like one immense garden, and the earth is clothed with perennial verdure of the most vivid hue. The stately hedge-rows which adorn the enclosed fields, the orchards, groves, and various other plantations of trees, contribute all the ornament that forest could add to the scene, without obstructing the prospect, which is in general rendered sufficiently extensive by the gentle undulations of the land. The numerous churches raise their spires with fine effect above the woods; and the villas of the opulent, which are scattered over the face of the country in number elsewhere unknown, rise on all sides to the view with such splendor and magnificence as to complete the decoration of these luxuriant landscapes; while plenty appears in every quarter, and the smiling face of liberty shines throughout the whole with such peculiar grace, in the thriving villages, the substantial farm-houses, and clean warm cottages, as to excite an idea the most pleasing of all to a benevolent mind, that of a happy peasantry, and a government founded in wisdom and on principles of equity.

The scenery, in general charming, is greatly diversified. Uncultivated spots are still suffered to remain, called heaths and commons, which might seem designedly abandoned to sterility, in order to heighten by contrast the rich glow of verdure in the improved lands. Culture however gradually circumscribes into closer bounds these patches of deformity. Some tracts distinguished by the name of  
Downs

Downs lie open to a great extent without hedge, ditch, or tree, grazed by vast flocks of sheep, as being less fit for culture, for their soil is shallow with a deep substratum of chalk. The most extensive of these downs is that which is called Salisbury plain, stretching from Winchester by Salisbury to Dorchester and Weymouth, in length fifty, and in breadth in some parts near forty miles. Some parts of this extensive space have of late years been converted into arable ground, and clumps of trees have been here and there planted. The charms of the cultivated and sylvan scene are continued northward at least through Yorkshire. The vale of Mowbry, which extends from York almost to the confines of Durham, is one of the finest tracts of country in Britain. Farther north, as in the Lowlands of Scotland, the prospects are less rich; the land bare of trees and less improved by culture: but even there the country is beautiful, the fields covered with a mild verdure, and the scene generally much heightened by a more or less distant view of mountains, extensive lakes, or those majestic rivers which are the glory of North Britain.

The elevations of Britain are sufficiently great to furnish fountains to a multitude of rivers, and its inequalities are such that many lakes are formed in the west and north. Of its innumerable streams above fifty are navigable by vessels carrying from five to a hundred and fifty tons. The inland navigation is rendered far more commodious and extensive by the addition of many fine canals. Most of the navigable streams water the eastern parts of  
South

## THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

South Britain. The rivers of Scotland, whose waters, tinged by the bogs, have mostly the pellucidity of brown crystal, are in general of so fierce a current, and so obstructed with rocks, that only three of them, the Clyde, the Forth, and the Tay, are navigable. A like impetuosity prevails in those rivers of South Britain which rise in the higher parts of the British Appennine and run to the west; beside that from the position of the country their courses are of no great length. The case is similar with many of the streams which water Wales, a country so abounding in running waters, that twenty-eight worthy of notice are reckoned in the single county of Caermarthen. It may be remarked that in Britain, as in other countries, the same proper name is in many instances applied to several rivers. Thus we find at least four Avons, and as many Esks; three large rivers called each the Dee; at least three Derwents; and two of no contemptible rank, each of which bears the name of Ouse. To particularize many of the British rivers would be incongruous with general geography, but to notice a few is expedient in any not extremely brief description of the island.

Thames.

Four fine streams, called the Lech, the Coln, the Churn, and the Isis, flowing from the Cotswold ridge, and, uniting their waters in one channel, form a noble river, which is navigable by vessels of fifty tons at Lechlade in Gloucestershire, and thence proceeds, winding toward the east, with a deep, majestic, and placid stream, through a delightful scenery to the sea of Britain, augmented  
on



on its way by the successive influx of the Charwel, Tame, and many other auxiliar streams, and receiving the tide as high as Richmond near sixty miles up its channel, which from its fountain to the sea winds above two hundred miles. This very deservedly celebrated river, the first of all in Britain both in respect of magnitude and utility, bears throughout from the source of the Isis the appellation of Tems, or, as it is commonly written, but not pronounced, Thames †.

Next to the Thames in greatness is the Severn, Severn. which rises in the mountains of Plinlimmon, and runs with a rapid stream, in an extremely crooked winding bed, above two hundred miles to the Bristol channel to which it gives the name of the Severn Sea. Of the subsidiary streams of this great river, which is navigable through a length of little less than two hundred miles, as far as Welchpoole in Montgomeryshire, the most remarkable is the Wye, which taking its rise in Plinlimmon, within

† It is an error that the Tamesis, Thames, Temese, or Tems, derives its name from the composition of Tame and Isis, for it has this name long before its junction with the Tame, nor is the name of Isis known except among scholars. Gough, vol. i. p. 95. Besides, in all probability, the Tamesis of Julius Cæsar was not the Tems, but the Medway. Archæologia, vol. 2. p. 159. Of all the poetical eulogiums of the Tems I have been most struck by these four lines of Denham :

O could I flow like thee, and make thy stream  
My great example, as it is my theme !  
Though deep yet clear, though gentle, yet not dull ;  
Strong without rage ; without o'erflowing, full.

a quar-

a quarter of a mile of the prime fountain of the Severn, and while the latter deviates widely to the east, running a southerly course, forms at Rhaiader in Radnorshire a continued series of waterfalls.

Trent.

The Humber, which, though commonly accounted a river, is in fact an inlet or frith, a common receptacle of many rivers, receives the waters of the Trent, which, from its prime source in the Moorlands of Staffordshire, winds near two hundred miles, with a deep and placid stream, navigable by large vessels to Gainsborough above thirty miles, and by smaller to Burton above four times as far, and apt to cause wide and lasting inundations in the low flat country through which it flows.

Tees.

The Tees, which has its original fountain on the borders of Cumberland in the huge mountain of Cross-fell, and, running eastward, separates Yorkshire from Durham, making a course of near a hundred miles, is remarkable for the vehemence of its current, its cataracts, and the floods with which it is apt to be swoln. Among the rocks at the bottom of a most dreary mountainous tract, called Teesdale, or Langden-forest, it makes a fall of eighty feet, called High-force, into a circular basin. Lower down it forms a second cataract of less magnitude called the Caldron-snoot; and at Barnard still lower, the river with a slanting fall, or what is sometimes called a rapid, exhibits a grand cascade almost as far as the eye can extend its view †.

† Gough, vol. iii. p. 111. Sullivan, vol. ii. p. 165.

The Forth, the most beautiful river of North Forth. Britain, perhaps of the whole island, takes its source in the Grampians near the northeast of Loch Lomond, and falls into the Frith to which it gives its name after a course of above ninety miles, navigable as high as Stirling by vessels of eighty tons, making many flexures, or, as they are called, reaches, which for beauty and regularity are scarcely equalled, particularly between Stirling and Alloway, where the stream serpentizes twenty-four miles in a rectilineal distance of hardly four.

The Clyde, the only great river of North Bri- Clyde. tain which runs westward to the ocean, springs from Errick-hill in a very lofty mountainous tract of country, and runs above eighty miles to the Frith of Clyde, mostly gliding with a gentle stream, but, below the influx of the river Douglas, near the town of Lanerk, forming a series of cataracts, or one almost continued cascade, through the space of four miles and a half, than which it is hard to conceive a finer object of the kind. One of these cataracts, which are called Linns by the neighbouring people, is named Corra-linn, and is said to have a perpendicular fall of a hundred feet; and the fall of Stonebyres is still more striking, as the stream is there broader, consisting of three cataracts, one above the other, the compound altitude of which is sixty feet §.

The Tay, accounted the greatest of the North-Tay. British rivers in body of water, but not in length

§ Gough, vol. iii. p. 343. Newte, p. 57.



of course, derives its original stream from two springs at the foot of the Grampians a little to the north of Lough Lomond, and forms in its winding course among the mountains an extensive lake of the same denomination; whence it proceeds eastward to the Frith of Tay, performing a run of near a hundred miles from its commencement to its exit.

Spey.

The Spey, a river eminent even among the rapid streams of Scotland for the impetuosity of its current, is derived from several springs in the high mountains which rear their heads to the south of the western end of Lough Ness, the collected waters of which springs form a lake named Lough Spey, whence the river issues, and running toward the east, pours its waters into the sea of Britain after a course of near a hundred miles.

Three  
Dees.

To the south of the Spey is the Dee, which also pours a violent stream of seventy miles in length from the mountains of Bray-mar eastward to the British sea, making in its way a fine cataract called the Lin of Dee. Another Dee in Scotland runs with a southerly course by Kircudbright into the Irish channel at the mouth of the Solway Frith. Another in South-Britain rushes from the mountains of Wales in a very curved channel by Chester to the same sea.

Lakes.

The eastern parts of South-Britain, watered by rivers of a long and gentle course, are almost destitute of lakes; scarcely any existing in these parts, except Wittlesea-meer and a few other still smaller near it, all in the great fen-country which borders the Wash. The largest of these is not above five

or

or six miles long and two or three broad, but in times of inundation they overflow, so as to form one great temporary lake forty or fifty miles in circuit. Lakes are very numerous in Wales, particularly in the counties of Cardigan and Carnarvon, the latter of which is said to contain no fewer than fifty at least. But the lakes of this principality are vastly surpassed in beauty, as they are exceeded in size, by those of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and still more by those of Scotland ||. These three lastnamed parts alone of Britain can boast of lakes which merit particular descriptions, yet many which might have place in a larger treatise must be omitted here. In the number, magnitude, and beauty of these pieces of water the superiority above all the rest of the island belongs to Scotland\*.

In Westmoreland on the borders of Lancashire Winder-  
is the greatest lake of South-Britain, named Win-<sup>meer.</sup>  
dermeer, or Winandermeer, about thirteen miles  
long in a crooked line from end to end, from  
one to two broad, and from thirteen to two hun-  
dred and twenty-two feet deep; its northern and  
western coasts wild and mountainous, its eastern  
and southern more depressed. It abounds in vast  
subaqueous precipices. It is subject in an extraor-  
dinary manner to be agitated with storms, but the  
level of its surface has nearly in all weathers the

|| Gilpin on the Wye, p. 81, 82.

\* With respect to the magnitude of the lakes no doubt can be admitted, and with respect to beauty, Mr. Sullivan, a South-Briton, gives the preference to the Scottish lakes, vol. ii. p. 248, 249.

same elevation, about ninety feet above the sea at high-water mark. Its water is so clear and transparent that "the eye can see distinctly in smooth water through the medium of at least a dozen yards, and view the inhabitants of its deep recesses as they play in shoals." Of about nine islands contained in the lake six form a cluster, the greatest of which has an area of thirty acres and an oblong figure divided in the middle by an appennine ridge in miniature †.

Ulles-  
water.

On the common borders of Westmoreland and Cumberland is Ulleswater, the second in size, and, according to some of the best judges, the first in beauty, of all the South-British lakes, extending about ten miles in length, in general not above one mile in breadth, sixty fathoms deep, in the form nearly of the letter Z, excepting that its angles are obtuse instead of acute, surrounded by wild hills with generally well wooded and cultivated margins; the southern shores most mountainous, the eastern least rugged, the western and northern most varied with woods and rocks. Beside the indescribable charms which this fine piece of water displays to the eye, its echos are said to excite extraordinary surprize and pleasure; the sound of a cannon, reverberated from rock to rock, striking the ear six or seven times, each time with a different sound, and, as it were, from a different quarter ‡.

† Gilpin's Northern Tour, vol. i. p. 142—163. Gough, vol. iii. p. 144, 153, 154.

‡ Gilpin, vol. ii. p. 50—61. Newte, p. 44, 45.



The lake of Derwent, or of Keswick, in Cum-  
 berland, is ten miles in compass, appearing to the  
 eye to have a circular form, but somewhat oblong  
 in reality. Interspersed with four or five islets, be-  
 girt almost every where, especially on the west, with  
 a green margent of meadow, and incircled, except  
 in one spot, with mountains, this lake is pronounc-  
 ed to be "beauty lying in the lap of horror." The  
 beauty is augmented by the declivous fall of the  
 river Derwent into the lake, and still more, at the  
 foutheast end, by the perpendicular cataract of the  
 river Lodoar, which, rushing through a chasm be-  
 tween two towering rocks, is precipitated into the  
 lake from a height of at least a hundred feet §.

The greatest and most majestically beautiful of  
 all the lakes of Britain is Lough Lomond in Scot-  
 land, twenty-four miles long, eight broad, from  
 twenty to a hundred and twenty fathoms deep, in-  
 terspersed with thirty beautifully wooded islands,  
 one of which is near three miles long, and narrow-  
 ing toward the north amid stupendous mountains  
 which confine it on all sides except the south,  
 and particularly overlooked from the northeast by  
 the sublime ridge of Ben-Lomond, which rears its  
 huge head near eleven hundred yards above the lake.  
 By a stream called Leven, five miles in length, are  
 conveyed into the Clyde the redundant waters of  
 this glorious and celebrated lake, the surface of  
 which stands at a level of twenty-two feet above  
 that of the sea ||.

§ Gilpin, vol. i. p. 188—209.

|| Sullivan, vol. ii. p. 248, 249. Pennant, vol. i. p. 224,  
 225. Gilpin's Scotland, vol. ii. p. 37.

Aw.

Logh Aw, situate northward of the great inlet of Logh Fine, is another amazing sheet of water, thirty miles long, one broad, diversified with ten or twelve islands which are tufted with wood, and overhung on the noreastern end by vast mountains, particularly Cronaghan, at whose foot flows with a turbid stream the outlet of the lake, which in its course of six or seven miles to Logh Edive, or Etive, an inlet of the sea, falls in a series of cataracts for the space of three miles\*.

Leven.

Logh-Leven, in the shire of Kinross, more worthy of notice for its fame than its magnitude, is of a circular form, eleven miles in circuit, bounded on one side by mountains, on the other by a plain. Near its middle are two islands, in the smaller of which, not much above an acre in size, stands an ancient castle, which appears at a distance to float on the lake, in which for a time was imprisoned the most amiable and lamentably unfortunate Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland. †.

Tay.

Logh-Tay, formed by the influx of the river Tay into a noble bason which lies in its course, is little inferior in grandeur of scenery to either of the two last. It is fifteen miles long, near two broad, two hundred yards deep, surrounded by huge mountains, and bent into three fine flexures which contribute with other objects to heighten its beauty. ‡.

\* Pennant, vol. i. p. 217—223. Gilpin, vol. ii. p. 176.

† Gilpin's Scotland, vol. i. p. 92.

‡ Pennant, vol. i. p. 84.

The lakes of Ness, Oigh, and Loghy, which lie in the great chasm of Glenmore between the northern and southern Highlands, are singular objects, nearly strait as artificial canals, closely confined on both sides by mountains, and indued with this extraordinary quality, that they are scarcely ever known to be frozen even in the severest winters. This may be caused partly by some internal warmth in the earth, and partly by the uncommon softness of the atmosphere in a situation so exposed to marine exhalations. Of these lakes Logh-Ness is the greatest, its length twenty-two miles, its breadth one, and its depth reported to be in general a hundred fathoms.

Of dipping streams, or such as disappear beneath the surface of the ground and afterward emerge, a considerable number might be traced in Britain, but two or three may suffice to be noticed here. The most noted, but by no means the most decisive, instance of this kind in the island, is the river Mole, which in the county of Surry in its descent to the Tems, is in part absorbed in a low soft piece of ground near two miles in length called the Swallow, or more properly Swallows, insomuch that a very small stream only is left, and in very dry seasons no stream at all, above ground between the villages of Mickleham and Leatherhead, at the latter of which the whole body of its water is again seen flowing in a full rapid stream §. Above the town of Settle in Yorkshire the Ribble tumbles into a

Dipping  
streams.

§ Gough, vol. i. p. 176.



deep cavern, and is lost in the bowels of the mountains for above three miles ||. In the same county the Greta, whose original springs are near those of the Ribble, runs about two miles under ground, making its appearance however in two or three places within that distance \*. At the base of Pen-yngent mountain two rivulets, called Hortonbeck and Branfilbeck, cross each other under ground without mixing, as they flow on different strata one above the other †. The rivers Hamps and Manyfold, ingulphed in rocks at the interval of five miles asunder, pursue their courses under ground, the former through a rectilineal space of four miles, the latter six, and emerge to the light at Ilam on the borders of Darbyshire and Staffordshire, at the interval of only fifteen yards asunder, after which they unite their streams and fall into the Dove ‡.

Water-falls.

Beside the cataracts and cascades already noticed in the above brief sketch of the rivers and lakes, many are observed in the mountainous tracts, which fall through a much greater space of perpendicular descent. Of the numerous waterfalls which contribute to adorn the fine vallies of Wales, I shall mention only two, those formed by the rivers Mothvay and Cayne, near the mountain of Kader-Idris, at but a small distance asunder, amid a delightfully variegated scenery. The former descends in one

|| Gough, vol. iii. p. 42.

\* Gough, vol. iii. p. 42.

† Gough, vol. iii. p. 43.

‡ Sullivan, vol. ii. p. 76. Gough, vol. ii. p. 305.

place

place through an altitude of seventy feet, divided into two broken sheets, each sheet beautifully broken by projecting parts of the rock. The latter descends with a narrower stream, but makes a continued cataract of above one hundred and fifty feet, broken by rocks as it falls, by which the grandeur of the view is heightened ||. In the mountainous country of Cumberland and Westmoreland several falls of water are seen four or five hundred feet high, which after heavy rains are noble objects, but at other times are too small in body of water to be interesting. Perhaps the loftiest of these is one at the lake of Buttermeer in Cumberland, which falls three or four hundred yards, yet is in general an object of no great beauty, appearing at a distance like a white ribbon bisecting the mountain, and called from its milky hue Sour-milk-force by the neighbouring people\*. Among the innumerable cascades of the Scottish mountains is that of the Rumbling-brig near Dunkeld, in one of the passes or entrances into the Highlands, where a stream called the Bran makes a fall of fifty, or according to other accounts, a hundred and fifty feet amid objects which compose on the whole an inexpressible scene of wild sublimity, and below that makes a second fall, which to those who have not seen the former is an object of great admiration †.

|| Tour in Monmouthshire and Wales, p. 120, 121.

\* Gilpin, vol. i. p. 118, 233.

† Gough, vol. iii. p. 397. Gilpin's Tour in Scotland, vol. i. p. 121—125.

Near Fort Augustus the river Tarff in its descent to Logh-Nefs makes a fall of fifty, and, a quarter of a mile lower, another of two hundred feet †. Near Dunstaffnage-castle, at the inlet of Logh-Etive in the west of North-Britain, is a periodical cataract of salt-water, which if it were permanent must, on account of its vast body of water, have been greatly celebrated. “ At the ferry called Conhuil, or the Raging-flood, Logh-Etive, swelled at once by the tributary waters of Logh-Awe and the spring tides, discharges itself in a mighty cataract through a straight formed by a rock protended from either shore, as if by a frolic of nature. The tide first rolling inward into the lake over the sloping backs of the rock, and then, in its return from this arm of the sea, falling over the precipitous face of the rocks toward the west, from a height of about fifteen feet, astonishes and deafens all around it, and is heard, in some directions, at the distance of many miles §.”

Canals.

The bounty of providence in furnishing this island with fine streams of water is highly improved in South Britain by the industry and ingenuity of the inhabitants, who have rendered many rivers more navigable than they had been in their natural state, and have formed communications from one to another by navigable cuts or canals, to the vast emolument of the nation, beside the additional beauty which the face of the country thence receives.

† Newte, p. 139.

§ Newte, p. 114.

This



This excellent system of inland navigation by such artificial rivers, at once the consequence and efficient of national riches, is in a state of perpetual extension, so that even North-Britain begins to find its beneficial effects. Here a canal has been formed from the Forth to the Clyde, fifty-six feet wide at a medium above, twenty eight below, eight feet deep in body of water, and thirty-five miles long, sixteen miles of which are on the summit of the country, which is a hundred and fifty-six feet above the level of the sea, and to which the ascent is made on the eastern side by twenty locks, and on the western by nineteen. Part of this navigation is made, beside fourteen other aqueducts, through an aqueduct over the river Kelvin, four hundred and twenty feet in length, and near seventy feet high above the heads of the spectators below ||.

Among the numerous navigable excavations of this kind in South-Britain is the canal which has been lately made from the Severn to the Tems, ascending from the former to the height of three hundred and forty-three feet by forty locks, and descending to the latter near Lecklade by twenty-two. The highest part of this canal is a funnel, or subterranean passage, bored through a hill for the length of almost two miles and a half, and at the distance of two hundred and fifty feet below the summit of the hill. This admirable canal is said to have cost its proprietors two hundred thousand pounds. A famous canal of the Duke of

|| M. S. penes me.

Bridge-

Bridgewater about twenty-seven miles in length, and finished in the year 1776, runs from Runcornegap at the mouth or estuary of the Mersey to the town of Manchester, passing in several places through hills, infomuch that the different parts of its subterranean course added together amount to some miles\*. To omit many other cuts, completed or begun, that which has been last mentioned communicates at Preston on the hill in Cheshire, by a funnel in the hill near three quarters of a mile long, with a canal ninety-three miles in length, which runs hence toward the south-east, ascending to the height of three hundred and twenty-six feet by thirty-five locks on the northern side, and descending on the other by forty; its breadth twenty-nine feet above, at bottom sixteen, and its depth of water four feet and a half, bearing vessels of twenty-five tons. Its passage is bored through hills in five places: it is carried over the river Dove in an aqueduct of twenty-three arches, over the Trent in one of six, and over the Dane in one of three, beside a hundred and sixty smaller aqueducts and culverts, and over it are built no less than two hundred bridges for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lands on both sides†.

Bridges

From such a number of bridges over one canal we may easily suppose the multitude of structures of this kind to be prodigious in Britain, adapted to the various nature of the streams, over which they are erected. Of these, excepting those which belong to large towns hereafter to be described, a

\* Sullivan, vol. ii. p. 280.

† Gough, vol. ii. p. 387.

few seem worthy of particular notice in this place. Among those of a large size is the bridge of Rochester on the Medway, five hundred and sixty-five feet long, consisting of eleven arches, finished in the year 1392. At Coalbrook-dale in Shropshire, where vast iron works are established, is a bridge of cast iron over the Severn, erected in the year 1779, a hundred feet wide in the span of the arch, forty feet high from the base line to the centre, and containing three hundred and seventy-eight tons and a half of metal. At Llangollen in Denbighshire the Dee, foaming over shelves of rock in a very wide and deep channel, is crossed by an extraordinary stone bridge of five large pointed arches, the largest not above twenty-eight feet wide, built on a ledge of rock on which it might seem impossible to fix a foundation, accounted one of the wonders of Wales, and said to have been completed in the year 1356. Among other singular bridges of Wales is that which is called by the Welch Pont y Pridd, consisting of a single arch over the torrent flood of the Taafe, built in the form of a segment of a circle a hundred and forty feet wide across the stream, and thirty-four feet high; doubtless one of the widest arches in the world †.

After the greater bodies of water flowing in natural or artificial channels, or apparently quiescent in widely expanded cavities, springs of strongly

† For the above bridges, see Gough, vol. i. p. 233. vol. ii. p. 417, 582, 583. Tour in Monmouthshire and Wales, p. 28, 29.

impreg-



impregnated water come next in review. These are in so great number and variety as to give ground for large particular treatises; impregnated in several degrees with salt, sulphur, iron, and many other substances. Some even have been discovered abounding in matter of an inflammable nature, which on the application of a lighted candle would kindle into flame, and boil meat or other provisions with the force of a culinary fire. Among the multitude of mineral wells a few only, of noted efficacy in medical cases, come within the plan of a general geographical treatise.

Tun-  
bridge.

Four or five miles south of Tunbridge in Kent are wells of medicinal water, which, impregnated with shelly particles and marine salts, is found to be a strong deobstruent and bracer, specifically lighter than the German Spa by four grains in seven ounces and a quarter, and lighter than common water by ten grains. The sanative power of these springs was accidentally discovered by Dudley Lord North in the year 1606. In the county of Surry, westward of the charming downs of Bansted, are the wells of Epsom, the water of which is Cathartick, discovered in the year 1630, formerly in high estimation, but now neglected seemingly from caprice rather than any rational consideration. Of a much higher reputation of late have been the waters of Cheltenham, a village situate on a brook called the Chilt which flows to the Severn in Gloucestershire. These, first made known to the publick by Doctor Short in 1740, are cathartick, and are found to have considerable efficacy against the gravel, scorbutic

Epsom.

Cheltenham.

butic symptoms, the erisipelas, and inflammations of the eyes.

Within the city of Bath in Somersetshire hot saline springs arise, of great and long established celebrity, well known and much used by the ancient Romans. The water is clear, steams by the action of subterranean fire, and is found impregnated with vitriol, ochre, a kind of calcareous earth, a marine salt, a little calcareous nitre, a little bitumen, and very little sulphur. It is soft and milky to the taste; useful, by internal or external application, in all disorders of the head, nerves, and skin; but so powerful and sudden in its effects, that a greater preparation, a more strict regimen, and a greater attention to the different degrees of heat, is required in the use of this than of most other fluids of this class. The seasons of resort to these famous baths are spring and autumn, and the space of time, during which a patient is commonly directed to drink and bathe, is six weeks. For the convenience of bathers and drinkers, commodious buildings are erected round the springs. The water is of different degrees of warmth in the different receptacles, and these have different names, as the Cross-bath, the Queen's-bath, the King's-bath, and the Hot-bath.

About a mile below the city of Bristol, in a sloping bank of the muddy river Avon, under lofty romantic rocks on the north of the river, rises a lukewarm spring of a kind of limestone water, containing a small quantity of acid and sulphur, soft and pleasant to the taste, without smell, of great medical

medical virtue, when taken into the stomach, against foulness of the blood and consumptive tendencies; and against scrophulous and ulcerous cases, when externally applied. The walls of the pump-room, built for the accommodation of patients, protect the spring against the flux of the tide which rises above it; yet by some subterraneous passages the water sustains a temporary adulteration, not only by the rise of the tide, but also by heavy rains.

Matlock  
and Bux-  
ton.

In Darbyshire are many medicinal fountains, particularly the tepid wells of Matlock and Buxton, the former a village on the Darwent, the latter fifteen miles farther to the northwest. One difference in these waters is, that those of Buxton are not impregnated with calcareous matter, while those of Matlock are. The latter became known in the year 1698; the former soon after the beginning of the Christian era, having been used in bathing by the Romans. The tepid springs of Buxton are situated in the vicinity of several cold springs in a vale surrounded by uneven wavy land. Their water, which raises Fahrenheit's thermometer to eighty-two degrees, is transparent, without color, taste, or smell, and contains a great number of bubbles, apparently a kind of permanent vapor, suspended in it. In these bubbles is supposed to consist the peculiarity of this fluid; and in them, together with its temperature and purity, its medicinal efficacy. This water is often found efficacious against obstructions, scorbutic rheumatisms, and various other diseases, and is supposed capable of the same opera-



operations as that of Bath, if it were mixed with a small quantity of Chalybeate water which springs near it.

On a large elevated and dreary moor in York-<sup>Harrow-</sup>shire, anciently part of Knareborough-forest, full gate. of rippling springs, are the villages of Upper and Lower Harrowgate, about a mile asunder, where are found, beside some others in the neighbourhood, four medicinal wells within the circumference of a circle seven or eight yards in diameter, yet different in temperature, impregnation, and medical virtue, but all abounding in sulphur. Of the waters of Harrowgate two springs bear the highest estimation. The Tewet-water, or Sweet Spa, discovered in 1638, is a weak chalybeate spring of a sort of milky taste, situate in the Upper town. The Stinking, or Sulphur Spring, accounted the strongest of the sulphureous class in Britain, applied to dropical, scorbutic, and gouty complaints, rises in the Lower town, and its stream is received in four basons under four different buildings, one for the use of drinkers, the rest for warm or cold bathing. The water is quite clear, but in its taste and smell it seems a mixture of rotten eggs, sea water, and sulphur. The season in which patients resort to Harrowgate for the benefit of the waters is from May to the end of September.

At the foot of a lofty cliff about a quarter of a mile south of the town of Scarborough, which stands <sup>Scarbo-</sup>rough. beautifully in form of a crescent over the sea on the coast of Yorkshire, is a celebrated Spa, rising like the boiling water of a pot, and discharging above

twenty-four gallons in an hour. The fluid is said not to differ much in nature from that of Cheltenham, nor from that of Pyrmont. It is clear, inclining to a sky color, cathartic in its effects, impregnated with salt and steel, of a pleasant acid taste and inky smell. Of two wells, that which is farther from the town is more cathartic and bitter; the other more chalybeate, brisk, and pungent. The season of resort is in the hot months of summer, when many assemble on account of health or amusement.

Moffat.

Of the mineral waters of North-Britain I shall notice only those of Moffat and Peterhead. Moffat is a very small town in the Shire of Dumfries, near which "are two springs, one of them about four miles from the town, the strongest mineral in Britain, and of a very bracing quality. The other, which is of a milder nature, and now commonly used, is not above a mile distant, and issues out of a rock about thirty feet high, by the side of a deep glen, at the bottom of which runs a strong stream. The former spring has been greatly injured by the admission of another stream into it, which has deprived it of two-thirds of its qualities." At Peterhead, on the coast of Aberdeenshire is a very good mineral spring, which operates as a very strong diuretic, and is considered as very efficacious in removing any complaint in the bowels\*.

Peterhead.

\* Newte, p. 52, 173.

Next to the waters of this island the temperature of its atmosphere demands some attention. As Britain extends through eight degrees of latitude, some variation in its temperature must arise from that of its climate, but a far greater is occasioned by the diversity of elevations and exposures of the land. Thus we find that in the low level tracts, which lie on the southern side of Murray-Frith, beyond the fifty-seventh degree of latitude, the harvest often commences before the end of July, which is earlier than in some of the most southern, but at the same time elevated, parts of the island, about the latitude of fifty-one; and, by comparing places which differ greatly in elevation, still stronger instances might be adduced.

The eastern and inland parts of South-Britain, which extend from Wales to the Dover-strait and British sea, differ least from the neighbouring continent in air and in temperature; hotter in summer than the rest of the island, and colder in winter than the most northern lowlands; the snow lying deeper here, and for a longer time, than in any low tracts in Scotland. This difference naturally arises from the great breadth of the land in the south, and its position with respect to the neighbouring countries. The western side of the island is of a moister air, and more equable temperature, than the eastern; less hot in summer, less cold in winter, and, particularly less exposed to easterly winds, which blow during the greater part of the spring, to the annoyance of the inhabitants and the damage of the nascent fruits, especially in the north,



where these winds are accompanied often with rain or wet fogs. But, while the western parts are more sheltered from the easterly, they are more exposed to the westerly winds, which blow during by much the greater part of the year, filling the incumbent atmosphere with aqueous vapors, and bringing frequent rains.

The difference in cold and moisture between the two opposite sides of Britain is most conspicuous in its northern extremity, beyond the Friths of Clyde and Forth, where clouds, wafted by westerly winds, are broken in their passage by the mountains, and mostly exhausted before they can reach the eastern coast. Hence it often happens that, while for weeks together the Highlands are darkened with fogs and deluged with rain, the Lowlands on their eastern side enjoy the sunshine and a clear sky. These Highlands are, from their altitude, exposure to the ocean, and ferrated surface, subjected, more than any other part of Britain, to the double evil of intense cold, and redundant moisture. Here the spring is bleak and piercing; the summer of short duration and little warmth; the autumn from the beginning of August deluged with rain; the winter long, dark, and tempestuous, during which the inhabitants are secluded from all intercourse with their neighbours in the Lowlands, and often too among themselves, by deep beds of snow, impassable torrents, pathless mountains, and impracticable morasses. So fierce is the cold in the upper regions of this mountainous tract, that some animals which inhabit them turn white in winter, in like manner

manner as in the most northern countries of the continent where the rigors of that season are most intense.

On the state of the atmosphere chiefly depend the productions of the soil. These, too various in Britain to be particularized, are by the industry of the inhabitants uncommonly abundant, yet in general capable of great augmentation by more extensive exertions; for, with a great inferiority in Wales and Scotland, the chief seat of agriculture, as also of manufactures and commerce, is that greatest and best division of the island which is well known by the name of England. Here the soil, more especially toward the east, improved to a very high pitch of fertility by long continued efforts of a happy industry, teems with vast quantities of wheat and other kinds of grain, of which a large portion is exported to foreign markets, but much also is imported, so that it seems not easy to fix the balance. What may be the annual quantity produced on an average in England, much more in all Britain, calculators differ so much as to leave it undetermined †. In general in England agriculture is  
Vegetables.  
 observed

†The highest calculation is that of Mr. Younge, in which the quantity of wheat produced in England alone is made seventy-two millions of bushels, that of barley ninety-two millions, and that of oats eighty millions, beside rye. This computation, notwithstanding the consumption in the feeding of horses, the making of malt, and even in the manufacture of starch, may be thought beyond the truth, if what has been asserted from reports on the corn trade be admitted, that grain is not produced in  
 England

observed to be exerted most on the poorest soils; of which the county of Kent, perhaps the best cultivated part of the whole island, is an instance.

In the mountainous tracts of Wales, in those of a similar nature in the north of England, and in almost all Scotland, oats are the principal bread-corn, the soil being less fit for the production of wheat. The western parts of Britain in general are less adapted to the culture of grain than the growth of grass and timber, on account of their superior moisture. This is eminently the case with the Welch and Scottish highlands, particularly the latter, where the quantity of arable ground is very small, and its value greatly diminished by the heavy rains. Here agriculture yields only oats and potatoes, and these in so sparing a manner as to make but a scanty food for the half-starved natives. These alpine regions contain several fine woods of oak, fir, and other trees, many miles in extent, but, from their situation, of little use to the community, as the expence of conveying the timber to places of sale would preclude all profit. South-Britain abounds in wood, particularly Hampshire, and some old forests are still in part preserved, as that of Deane in Gloucestershire; but much foreign timber is imported, and that of domestic production seems to be in a state of gradual decline.

England in sufficient quantity for the consumption of its inhabitants. The computation is indeed much beyond the double of that of Mr. King and some other earlier calculators; but agriculture has since their time encreased.

In



In England clover and other such plants are propagated in immense quantities for the feeding of cattle, as also turnips, carrots, and cabbages for the same purpose. Hops are cultivated very much to the advantage of the nation, particularly in some of the southeasterly counties. Much excellent cyder is exported, great quantities of it being made in several counties, as Herefordshire and Gloucestershire, the latter of which is said to be unrivalled in the juice of the apple †. Among the rarer sorts of plants cultivated in South-Britain are liquorice, saffron, and woad, none of them in such plenty as to preclude importation. The first, a plant with deeply piercing roots, strong herbaceous stalks four or five feet high, and, on the tops of these, flowers of a pale blue color, has been cultivated principally about Pomfret in Yorkshire, Worktop in Nottinghamshire, Godalmin in Surrey, Elme in the Isle of Ely, and in several places about London, but no where in this island ever much exceeding the thickness of a man's thumb in the size of its root. The saffron, with a bulbous root of the size of a nutmeg, and long tubed flowers of a kind of purple blue cast, has for its chief, and now almost only, place of culture the country about Walden in Essex. Woad, which not only affords a lasting and substantial blue dye, but is also of great use in fixing many other colors, is a biennial plant, about four feet high, with yellow flowers, raised by its cultivators chiefly in the midland counties, and prepared for coloring

† Rudder's New History of Gloucestershire, 1779, p. 26.

by being cut, dried, and reduced by a tedious process into powder.

*Animals.* It is probably in consequence of the mildness of its temperature and the excellent nature of its soil that so many kinds of useful animals thrive to such a degree of perfection in Britain; but at the same time great merit is in this respect to be ascribed to the inquisitive temper, the laudable industry, and the ingenious disposition of the natives, who are apt to import, and assiduously to improve by skilful management, whatever they discover useful or desirable in other countries. The large British dogs have been so long in estimation for strength and fierceness, that they were an object of attention to the ancient Romans, who carried them to Rome to combat with wild beasts in the barbarous exhibitions of their amphitheatres; and at present perhaps no country can more justly boast of other tame animals, particularly its sheep, its neats, and its horses.

As the useful animals are numerous, the noxious and predaceous tribes are few, and none of them formidable. As wolves have been long exterminated §, the largest quadrupede which lives by prey is the fox, and of this the species would be thin if

§ About the year 961 Edgar, King of England, ordered the princes of Wales to furnish annually, in lieu of tribute, the heads of three hundred wolves; whence arose such a persecution of these noxious animals, that in three or four years very few were to be found. Warrington's History of Wales, 4to. p. 173. But they were not totally exterminated in North-Britain till the reign of Charles the First, in the seventeenth century. Newte, p. 226.

it were not preserved as an object of the chase by a savage spirit of hunting which still absurdly pervades a great proportion of the British nobility and gentry, to the no small detriment of the community in many respects. Among the rarer wild animals of the granivorous and graminivorous classes is the bustard, a large, heavily flying species of bird, weighing between twenty and thirty pounds, a few of which still subsist in the wide open downs of the south. But the wastes of the Scottish highlands are the only considerable ranges of the wild species. Here is the bird called the Ptarmigan, or Ptarmag-han, grey in summer, but excepting a few feathers in the tail, of a pure white in winter. Here is a particular kind of hare, inhabiting only the tops of the mountains, grey in summer, but in winter white as snow, except the edges and tips of the ears ||. Here are great numbers of roes and other sorts of deer, wild and unconfined in their ranges as hares or other game, particularly in a large desert in the northwest of the island, called Lord Ray's forest, where six or seven hundred of these animals rove together in one herd: and here also were formerly wild neats, or bisons, of a whitish hue, extremely fierce and terrible, of which the males, or bulls, were maned on the neck like lions. This species appears at present to be extinct, except a very few preserved in a tame state in parks for curiosity, as in the Duke of Queensberry's park in Scotland\*, and in that of Chillingham-castle in Northumberland†.

|| Pennant vol. i. p. 85.

\* Gilpin's Scotland, vol. ii. p. 89.

† Pegge in vol. x. Archæologia.



Moor-fowl, or black game, are found in the Welch, as well as the Scottish wilds. Woodcocks are in general very scarce in South-Britain, but are in considerable plenty in some maritime tracts of the island, as at Ravenglas in Cumberland, where the tenants are bound in their leases to sell them to the landlord for a penny each †. Water-fowl of many different species abound in the great fens, and vast numbers of ducks of several kinds are taken in decoys in different parts of the country. In the great fen country are prodigious flocks of tame geese which constitute chiefly the wealth of the inhabitants, each flock attended by a gozzard, or goose-herd. For the sake of their feathers these geese are plucked from three to five times in the year, by which barbarous custom many of the poor creatures perish in cold seasons §.

Sheep, whose fleeces are a prime source of British opulence, can hardly be fewer than twelve or thirteen millions of various sorts and sizes in the whole island. Vast numbers of a large kind, weighing from a hundred to a hundred and sixty pounds, and bearing fleeces of twelve and eighteen pounds weight ||, are bred in the fertile parts of South-Britain, particularly in that tract of country which extends from the river Anker on the north of Warwickshire to the Humber, and from the Trent to the Ouse, which runs through Cambridgeshire.

† Burn's History of Cumberland, vol. ii. p. 21.

§ Campbell's Political Survey, vol. iii. p. 157.

|| Gough, vol. ii. p. 235.

Smaller flocks cover the ridge of Cotswold, the Downs, and other such tracts in so large flocks, that no less than six hundred thousand are said to graze about the town of Dorchester in Dorsetshire within the circumference of a circle only twelve miles in diameter. Sheep and all other kinds of cattle are small in the higher tracts of Wales and Scotland. The sheep of Wales yield excellent mutton, but not very good wool. The Scottish highlands, notwithstanding their bleakness, are found to contain pastures admirably adapted to this kind of quadrupeds; and an indigenous breed, which had been almost extinct, with excessively fine silky fleeces, falling in soft ringlets, and of a snowy whiteness, is now, by the attention of certain public spirited gentlemen, in a state of revival in this formerly neglected part of Britain.

Extraordinary attention is given to the improvement of the breed of cattle\*, particularly horses, inasmuch that this noble animal has attained in South-Britain such a degree of excellence, that when considered at once with respect to swiftness, strength, and perseverance, the English horses have scarcely any rivals in Europe, excepting in the Tartarian deserts. The best of those, which are reserved to contend for prizes in the race, are reckoned to run at the amazing rate of eighty-two feet and a half in a second of time, or nearly an English mile

\* To improve the breed of sheep a thousand guineas have been given for the use of a single ram for a single season; and twenty-five for the covering of a single cow by a fine bull.

in a minute. On the elevated tracts of the west and north, the horses are small and hardy, as are also the neats, which in Scotland are mostly black. Many thousands of the latter are driven annually from Wales and Scotland, but much more from the latter, in a lean condition, and sold to the inhabitants of the richer tracts, where they are soon rendered fat. Cattle bred in the rank pastures of South-Britain, especially the marshy flats, grow to a great size; oxen of fifteen hundred weight being not uncommon, and some approaching to the weight of a tun, or even exceeding that enormous bulk. The beef of this cattle is allowed to be as good as any in the world for every use, particularly for the purpose of salted provision stored for the victualing of ships or troops. In some parts toward the west more profit is made of the milk than the flesh of neat cattle. Great quantities of excellent cheese are made and exported with various qualities, and under various names. From Cheshire and the neighbouring parts fourteen thousand tuns have been long ago computed to be sent to London alone, beside what is furnished to other parts of Britain, and what is exported to Ireland and other countries, which has been rated at sixteen thousand more. The cheese made annually in all Britain amounts to the value of some millions of pounds, and very probably no less than seven hundred thousand carcases at least of beef are consumed every year within the island.

Fish.

The lakes and rivers of Britain in general furnish fish in considerable quantity, but the rivers of the south,



south, mostly flowing through stratum of clay, and with consequently somewhat turbid streams, are little visited by salmon, while these fish ascend the clearer waters of the north in such multitudes, that the exportation of them brings large sums into the country. The most southern salmon fishery on the eastern coast is at Whitby in Yorkshire. The quantity and goodness of these fish encreases toward the north, so that from the single fishery of the Dee near a hundred and seventy thousand pounds weight of pickled salmon are sent commonly in a year to London, and nine hundred and thirty barrels to the southern parts of Europe. In the Tay at Perth forty-eight thousand pounds weight are sometimes taken in one morning; in the Spey about seventeen hundred barrels in a season; and at Loghabar, on the western coast, where these fish never appear so early as on the eastern, about fifty tuns yearly†. Among the innumerable other sorts of fish taken in fresh water is a species of trout found in Ulleswater, beautifully clad in scales of a silver hue, and sometimes weighing above thirty pounds; and the Char, which in Logh-Leven in Scotland is two feet and a half long, but much larger still in South-Britain.

The seas which environ this island seem even to surpass the land in the contributions which they offer to the general plenty. Vast shoals of various fishes swarm around the coast. Pilchards to the amount of sixty or seventy thousand barrels are

† Pennant, vol. i. p. 25, 75, 122, 144, 209.

annually

annually taken on the shores of Cornwall and those in its vicinity, of which almost thirty thousand hogf-heads have been found exported at a medium. From the town of Yarmouth in Norfolk fifty thousand barrels of herrings are said to be generally exported in a year, beside great quantities conveyed into the interior country. But all the fish taken by British people, on their own shores, amount to a trifle, in comparison of the immense quantities which might be procured on the coasts, and in the inlets, of the Scottish highlands, where cod, ling, and other sorts of fish, but, above all, herrings, crowd one on another in so enormous shoals as to surpass all power of calculation, offering to the inhabitants of those bleak territories, and to the British nation in general, a prodigious object of industry, an inexhaustible source of wealth, and such a nursery of seamen as cannot be paralleled in Europe. Such however are the unfortunate circumstances of these hitherto neglected highlands, destitute of towns, and subject to a multitude of inconveniencies, that their inhabitants have as yet been unable, in any considerable degree, to avail themselves of this vast bounty of providence, whence the more fortunate Dutch, who employ many hundreds of large fishing vessels on these coasts, have drawn the greatest advantages †. The Scottish fisheries, however, have so far increased of late years as to require above twelve thousand tuns of salt annually, of which about nine thousand are imported from Portugal §.

† See Anderson's View of the Hebrides and western coasts of Scotland.

§ Newte, p. 111, 112.

The bowels of the earth seem to vie with the <sup>Fossils.</sup> surface, and with the ambient seas, in furnishing the materials of British industry and wealth. Vast beds of various fossils lie at no great depth beneath the soil, in almost every part of the island, and numerous mines have been opened which give employment to whole multitudes of workmen. The tin mines, for which Britain was anciently so famous, are at present almost confined to Cornwall, where their annual produce amounts nearly to the value of two hundred thousand pounds, including what is conveyed to foreign markets, which was once calculated at eight hundred tuns yearly ||. Of copper Cornwall is said to furnish the value of two hundred thousand pounds annually, all Britain that of a million, and the quantity exported was formerly rated at above a thousand tuns \*. Lead is raised in many parts of Britain, as, beside others, in the counties of Darby, York, Northumberland, Cardigan, and Denbigh, in such abundance that near twenty thousand tuns are exported every year, beside great quantities consumed in various works at home.

No mines of gold or silver are worked in Britain, but some of the latter is extracted from the ore of lead, and bits of gold ore are found in the tin mines of Cornwall and elsewhere. Iron, a metal of the greatest utility, and, by the benignity of providence, most copiously diffused, may be found in

|| Campbell, vol. ii. p. 40.

\* Campbell, vol. iii. p. 46.



plenty in all parts of this island; but of this though great quantities are made, great quantities also are imported from Sweden and Russia. According to some calculations, the former some years past amounted annually to thirty thousand tuns, the latter to fifty-five thousand; while other statements have more than doubled the former amount, and have taken about the eleventh part from the latter. As fossil coal is now said to be applied, with as good efficacy as charcoal of wood, to the smelting of iron, particularly at the iron-works at the river Carron in Scotland, which are the greatest in Britain, the quantity of iron raised at home may be supposed to be augmented, and the latter computation to be nearer the truth. In the works at the Carron a thousand workmen are said to be constantly employed, and many thousands of tuns of coal consumed in a year; by the lowest computation a hundred tuns, previously charred, in the day †.

Above two thousand tuns of vitriol, and at least as many of alum, are annually exported. Of the latter substance three thousand tuns are made at the alum-works near Whitby in Yorkshire. Fullers earth may be ranked among the subterraneous treasures of this island; as also that singular substance which is known by the name of black-lead, and which, beside several other purposes, is applied to the making of writing-pencils. Of this the only considerable mine is near Kewick in Cumberland,

† Newte, p. 291, 292. Some estimate the whole annual quantity consumed by these works at 570,000 tuns.

supposed

supposed to be capable of supplying all Europe, and permitted by its proprietors to be opened only once in seven years lest the market should be overstocked.

Several mines have been opened of fossil salt, particularly on the south of Northwich in Cheshire, where are vast quarries of rock-salt, insomuch that from a single pit four thousand tuns are annually drawn. Many springs of salt-water, called Brine-pits, have been discovered in South, but none in North-Britain. The principal are in Cheshire, along the river Weaver, and about thirty miles from the sea. The brine, or salt-water, is boiled until the aqueous parts are evaporated, and the salt alone remains. At the springs of Nantwich a pound of salt is obtained from six pounds of brine §. Vast quantities of salt, yet not enough to supply the consumption, are made in Britain, from the brine, or by boiling a solution of the fossil salt mixed with this or with sea water.

A fossil of prodigious value to this island is its coal, of which vast beds are, or may be, opened in almost every part of it, and very considerable quantities are exported to the neighbouring countries. The finest sort is the Cannel-coal, of which the best is found in Lancashire, smooth, solid, of a beautiful shining black, often turned into snuff-boxes, and other toys, or utensils, but mostly used as fuel,

§ Phil. Trans. No. 53, 54. In Aikin's England delineated, p. 92, the duty accruing to government from Cheshire salt is said to be at least 200,000 pounds annually.

of which it is in all respects an excellent kind, supplying by the brightness of its flame the want of candles. Besides this, three kinds of coal are commonly noticed. That which is called Scottish-coal, though found also in South-Britain, is smooth and easily split, burns briskly with a white flame, and consumes entirely into white ashes without cinders. That which is usually termed Welch-coal is more lasting, emits little smoke, and burns into cinders. This kind is fittest for malt-houses. Different from both the above is the common Newcastle coal, of which above forty sorts have been reckoned, strong, heavy, and constituting an exceedingly good fuel for general use, commonly called Sea-coal, as being carried by sea to London.

The chief mines of coal are worked in Cumberland, Durham, and Northumberland. In Cumberland the wealthy town of Whitehaven, which has encreased since the year 1566, from about thirty inhabitants to twelve thousand, owes its existence to the coal trade. In this it employs near two hundred large vessels, and sends about two hundred thousand tuns of coal to Ireland every year. The mines here are wonderful, being pushed even under the bed of the sea, to the depth of near seven hundred feet, so that ships every day sail over the heads of the workmen. Among the engines employed in these works are pumps and fire-engines which are said to discharge at the rate of twenty-eight thousand hogsheads of water in twenty-four hours. The far greater town of Newcastle upon Tyne in Northumberland gives employment to four or five hundred



hundred ships, and sends to London alone six hundred thousand chaldrons of coal, of thirty-six bushels each; but the whole quantity annually shipped from this town, and its members in this trade, has been computed at twelve hundred and fifty thousand tuns ||.

A great variety of manufactures flourish in South-Britain, improved to the highest pitch of excellence, and managed on the most extensive scale ever known. Machines of various kinds, contrived and gradually brought nearer to perfection by the persevering reflective genius of the natives, greatly lighten the labor of the artizan and manufacturer, so that works are performed by a few hands which would otherwise require many; by which means manufactures are multiplied, the goods are sold at a low price notwithstanding the high wages of workmen, the merchant is enabled to obtain the speedy execution of his orders at home, and a decided pre-eminence in the markets abroad. To particularize all the species of manufactures in South-Britain, would be to enumerate every contrivance of mechanism in the most improved state which it has hitherto attained, in any age or country, for the convenience and use of man. Their annual collective produce, which was still in a state of augmentation, before the commencement of the present French war, was rated at near fifty-two millions of pounds, and they were conceived to give employment to a million of families, or five

|| Campbell, vol. iii. p. 32.

millions of people. Yet the operations of mechanical industry, thus wonderfully productive, are almost all confined to England, the people of Wales having as yet made very few exertions of this kind.

The great and staple manufacture of England is that of wool, in which twelve or thirteen millions of British fleeces are annually consumed, beside great quantities of fine wool, amounting to the price of about six hundred thousand pounds, imported from Spain. The value of woollen goods manufactured in the year is supposed to have amounted to full twenty millions of pounds, and that of the quantity exported, to about four millions. Above eleven thousand tuns of raw cotton are said to have been annually imported, and to have produced in manufactured goods the value of about seven millions of pounds. Ten millions five hundred thousand pounds is said in the same sense to be the worth of the manufactured leather; and one million, that of earthen ware of many different kinds, among which is the porcelain, or China ware, which at Chelsea, and other places, has been improved to a high degree of beauty and of estimation. Even the ribbons manufactured at Coventry were computed at the yearly value of five hundred thousand pound\*.

Of glass of several sorts were exported three thousand seven hundred tuns and eight hundred and three chests in the year 1764, since which time the quantity is doubtless much augmented. The chief

\* Sheffield on the Commerce of the American States.

exertion of the cutler's art is made at Sheffield in Yorkshire, where forty thousand workmen are said to be employed in the making of cutting instruments and various kinds of hardware. As great a number seem to be occupied at Birmingham, or Brimigem, in Warwickshire, in the fabrication of guns, locks, and a great variety of other metallic utensils. Unfortunately the avarice and oppression of contractors oblige in some cases the workmen to exert their ingenuity, not for the masterly finishing of the goods, but for the affording of them cheap. Hence much of the hardware is ill-tempered, flawed, half-finished, or brittle. To omit many other objects of the handicraft industry of the English, even the manufacture of tobacco-pipes is a matter of such consideration, that the clay of which they are made is forbidden by the legislature to be exported in its crude state.

The highlands of North-Britain may be said to be as yet almost destitute of manufactures, and the lowlands have but few in comparison of the south. In these lowlands, instead of the woollen, the linen manufacture is the chief object of industry, insomuch that several years ago four hundred thousand yards of linen were yearly whitened in one bleachery on the banks of the Tay; and the whole quantity stamped for sale in Scotland, beside what was made for private use, amounted to above seventeen millions of yards, in value near nine hundred thousand pounds, which quantity has been since augmented. In the town of Paisley and its neighbourhood, on the Clyde, the quantity of white sewing thread annually



nually made, many years ago, was valued at fifty thousand pounds, that of lawns at seventy thousand, and that of silk gauze, which is here afforded cheaper than in any other place, at sixty thousand †; which manufactures together with others have considerably since encreased, above fifteen thousand persons being thereby maintained ‡.

Com-  
merce.

Notwithstanding the neglect, in great part, of her fisheries, the unimproved condition of many extensive tracts of land, the want of manufactures in many places where manufactures might be established, and the enormous, unexampled, and seemingly intolerable load of taxes, by which the prices of all articles of consumption are raised, and consequently the wages of workmen rendered high, Britain in commerce and in wealth holds among European states the undisputed pre-eminence. Exclusively of the inland navigation, the commerce of Britain before the present war employed a hundred and ten thousand seamen, and near fifteen hundred thousand tons of shipping, which at somewhat less than a hundred and forty tons to each vessel at a medium constituted near eleven thousand vessels. The annual value of the exports was rated at above twenty millions of pounds, and that of the imports is supposed to have been so much less as to leave a balance of one or two millions in favour of Britain. The balance however by smuggling and other means is rendered very uncertain, and whatever may be

† Pennant, vol. i.

‡ Newte, p. 70.

its amount, great part of it, perhaps the whole, is again carried out of the kingdom by the payment of the interest of the national debt due to foreigners, and by the great numbers of British gentry who travel or reside in foreign countries.

The traffic of the British merchants extends in general to almost all parts of the globe, and new markets are frequently found for the vending of their merchandize. Some of the exports, and two or three of the imports, have already been noticed, nor would a minute and tedious detail of these be agreeable to the reader, or contribute in any adequate degree to his information, besides that the state of the British commerce with the several countries will be given, as far as known, in the several descriptions of the countries. Of sugar are annually imported from the Tropical islands of America above ninety-four thousand tuns, of rum almost forty-two thousand hogheads from the same, and of tea near twenty millions of pounds weight from China. Of sugar are re-exported to other parts of Europe above thirteen thousand tuns, part refined and part unrefined; of rum above thirteen thousand hogheads, and of tea about seven millions of pounds weight. Among the articles imported and re-exported are cod-fish and train oil. Of the former were carried to foreign markets above five hundred and ninety thousand quintals in the year 1785 from the coasts of Newfoundland, where many British vessels are employed in this fishery. For the procuring of train-oil ships are sent every year from Britain to kill whales in the seas of Greenland, Spitzberg,

Spitzberg, and lately also in those which wash the coasts of South America.

Some companies of merchants, privileged by exclusive charters, monopolize certain branches of commerce. Thus the Hudson's-Bay Company have long exclusively held the trade of peltry in that great Mediterranean of North-America. But by far the greatest commercial corporation ever known is the East-India Company, which monopolizes the traffic between Southern Asia and Britain. This great company is in its present state a potent commercial commonwealth under the protection and control of the British government, holding vast, populous, and wealthy territorial possessions in the Indian regions, whence it raises between three and four millions of pounds annually of revenue, and where it maintains very powerful armies for the defence of its dominions, to which an addition has very lately been made by conquests from Tippoo Sultan. It employs in its trade eight or ten thousand seamen, and more than a hundred and ten ships of great size. But an account of this great commercial body and its concerns, which would be preposterous in this place, will be given in the description of Hindostan, where its possessions lie. To its proper place also is referred an account of the Sierra Leona Company, lately embodied for the philanthropic purpose of introducing legitimate commerce into the African regions, and precluding the motives for that infernal trade, the exportation of slaves, which to the indelible infamy of many members of the British legislature, who opposed by every art the amiable



amiable attempts of others, is still sanctioned by the government of Britain.

The improvable nature of her soil, the abundance and variety of her useful fossils, her favourable situation for nautical excursions, her extensive line of coast, the great number of her ports, her many navigable rivers, and the industrious enterprising spirit of her inhabitants, who have availed themselves in a great measure of these advantages, have contributed to raise the commerce of Britain to that enviable and envied state to which it has arrived: yet, great and unequalled as this commerce is, since it is very far from being diffused in any due proportion in all parts of the country, it is still inadequate to the extent and resources of the island, and will doubtless advance to a much higher pitch, unless checked in its progress by some great calamity. A very severe shock it has already received by a most extraordinary war with the French commonwealth; a shock the more remarkable, as the ten preceding years, from the termination of the American war, formed the most flourishing period which Britain had ever seen; and how far it may revive, under an enormous and still growing load of taxes, is no very easy matter of conjecture.

The length of Britain, taken directly in a line Area. from south to north, is at least five hundred and fifty English, or four hundred and thirty-three Irish miles. Its breadth in the widest part, from the east toward the west, is above three hundred of the former, or near two hundred and forty of the latter; but it is relatively very narrow in several places, as  
at

at the Solway Frith, where it is hardly sixty English miles broad, and at the Forth and Clyde Friths, where it is but twenty. Its surface contains about fifty-seven millions of English, or above thirty-five millions of Irish acres, an area which is much beyond the double of those of all the rest of the British islands taken together.

**Division.** This great area is distinguished into two main divisions of unequal extent, called South-Britain and North-Britain, separated one from the other by the lower part of the river Tweed, and an imaginary line drawn thence westward through the Cheviot-hills, and the rivers Kirsop and Esk, to the Solway Frith. South-Britain is divided into two still more unequal parts, England and Wales, separated by the lower part of the Dee and its estuary, the Severn sea, the river Tave which falls into that sea at Cardiff, and an imaginary line drawn thence northward to the Dee. North-Britain, which is also called Scotland, is divided likewise into two parts separated by the Friths of Clyde and Forth. All these divisions are subdivided into counties or shires, the number of which in the whole island is eighty-two; Wales containing eleven, England forty, and Scotland thirty-one.

**Wales.**

The names of the eleven Welch counties are Glamorgan, Brecknock, Carmarthen, Pembroke, Cardigan, Radnor, Montgomery, Merioneth, Carnarvon, Denbigh, and Flint. Of these the six former constitute what is called South-Wales, and the five latter North-Wales. In a political sense the counties of Wales are twelve, the island of Anglesea, of which

which an account will be given in its proper place, being politically a part of that principality.

The forty counties of England are those of Corn-England. wall, Devon, Somerset, Dorset, Wilts, Gloucester or rather Gloster, Monmouth, Hereford, Salop or Shropshire, Chester or Cheshire, Darby, Stafford, Worcester or Wurster, Warwick or Warrick, Oxford, Berks, Hants or Hampshire, Sussex, Surrey, Kent, Essex, Middlesex, Bucks or Buckinghamshire, Hartford, Bedford, Cambridge, Suffolk, Norfolk, Lincoln, Huntingdon, Northampton, Rutland, Leicester or Leister, Nottingham, York, Lancaster or Lancashire, Westmoreland, Durham, Northumberland, and Cumberland. The common term of shire affixed to the proper name of the county, causes in some instances a change in the name, as the county of Hants is called Hampshire, and that of Chester Cheshire. By far the greatest of all the English counties is Yorkshire, containing three millions seven hundred and seventy thousand English acres, and divided into three ridings, or trithings, by which are signified third parts, the east, west, and north. The smallest county is Rutland, containing in its area only a hundred and ten thousand English acres.

The counties of Scotland are somewhat different-Scotland. ly stated by different writers. They may be reckoned thirty-one in number, exclusively of the two counties of Bute and Orkney, which, though politically constituting a part of North-Britain, are insular counties quite separated from the main-land. These counties or shires are Roxborough, Berwick, Hadding-



Haddington, Edinburg, Peebles, Selkirk, Dumfries, Kircudbright, Wigton, Aire, Renfrew, Lanerk, Linlithgow, Stirling, Clacmannan, Kinross, Fife, Perth, Forfar, Kincardin, Aberdeen, Bamff, Elgin, Nairn, Inverness, Argyle, Dumbarton, Cromartie, Ross, Sutherland, and Cathness. Some of these counties are differently named, and it ought to be observed that, independently of the shires, Scotland is conceived to be divided into the following thirty-nine districts, Galloway, Nithisdale, Annandale, Eskdale, Eusdale, Lidsdale, Tiviotdale, the Mers, Lauderdale, Clydesdale, Kyle, Carrick, Cunningham, Lothian, Sterling, Renfrew, Cantyre, Lorn, Argyle, Fife, Menteith, Lenox, Perth, Strathern, Breadalbin, Merns, Angus, Gcwry, Athol, Mar, Badenogh, Loghaber, Buchan, Bamff, Murray, Ross, Sutherland, Strathnavern, and Cathness.

Popula-  
tion.

The number of inhabitants in Britain has been variously estimated, but probably amounts to near eleven millions, of which South-Britain contains above eight millions, and of these very probably half a million belong to Wales. Whatever be the exact number of People, it is very inadequate to the area of this great island, and distributed very differently in different parts. In England the towns and villages are numerous, large, and full of people, while the rural parts, though highly cultivated, are thin of inhabitants: for here agriculture is managed on an extensive scale, and scarcely any more inhabitants are suffered to remain on the farms than are necessary for their cultivation: thus, those hands

hands which would be superfluous in the rural parts, are collected in towns, where their industry is as much exerted in manufactures, as that of the peasants is in agriculture. The case is diametrically opposite in the Scottish highlands, which, except on the borders of the lowlands, are destitute of towns, and have hardly any other villages than hamlets of a few miserable hovels each; but the people, thickly spread over the face of the country, consume its whole produce, and starve for want of an opportunity to exert their industry, as they neither have manufactures, nor other agriculture than that of little scattered patches of ground. Some tracts in these wilds are quite desert, particularly what is called Lord Ray's Forest in Sutherland, an extent of rock, or moss, thirty miles wide, destitute of trees, houses, and human beings.

The distribution of the inhabitants in Wales and <sup>Towns.</sup> the Scottish lowlands is a kind of medium between the above described modes, but varying in different parts, and in general, particularly in the southern parts of Scotland, approaching nearer to that of England. In the last named division all the great populous towns of Britain, excepting two in Scotland, are found. The names of all will be seen in the tables at the end of this description of the British islands; but it is necessary here to describe a few, selected on account of their magnitude or some uncommon circumstance.

London, the capital of all the British dominions, <sup>London.</sup> and perhaps the greatest city in Europe, stands mostly in the county of Middlesex, but partly in  
that

that of Surrey, in a level country, somewhat sheltered on the northern side by rising grounds, or gently sloping hills, on the banks of the Tems, at the distance of near fifty miles from the sea. When it was founded is a matter of uncertainty §, but it was doubtless a considerable town while the Romans remained masters of South-Britain, and may probably have been founded, or at least new-modelled, in the reign of the Emperor Claudius, about fifty years after the commencement of the Christian era. It has been several times ruined by hostile attacks, particularly in the times of the Danish wars, and by accidental conflagrations, one of the greatest of which happened in the year 1666, when by far the greater part of the city was laid in ashes. Since that great calamity it has continued to advance in extent and beauty to the present time.

London, prodigious in its present dimensions, extends on both sides of the Tems, but much more on the northern, where that fine river makes a kind of crescent-like flexure, and comprehends not only what is properly called the city of London, but also the city of Westminster, the Borough of Southwark, and several villages, which stood formerly detached one from another, but are now connected by continued streets. The whole forms an immense, yet annually encreasing assemblage of buildings, inhabited by about a million of people,

§ It is said to have been, beside other names, called Llundain by the ancient Britons. Warrington's History of Wales, p. 13.

and



and occupying a great, but extremely irregular space of ground, about seven miles long, and from three miles to half a mile broad. According to calculations made so many years ago that they must be considered as low in its present augmented state, this enormous metropolis annually consumes above a hundred thousand neat cattle, beside two hundred thousand calves, seven hundred thousand sheep, eight thousand tuns of butter, eleven thousand tuns of cheese, two hundred and fifty thousand pigs and swine, beside a vast quantity of other provisions, and in fuel six hundred thousand chaldrons of coal.

The river admits vessels of considerable burden quite within the town, whose commerce and riches are amazingly great. The parts of the town which are on opposite banks are connected by three noble bridges of stone. London Bridge, finished so early as the year 1209, but since somewhat altered, is nine hundred and fifteen feet long, consisting of nineteen arches, with a draw-bridge in the middle. Westminster Bridge, which was built in twelve years ending in the year 1747, is doubtless one of the finest structures of the kind in the world, twelve hundred and twenty-three feet long, forty-four broad, consisting of fourteen piers, two smaller and thirteen greater arches, the middle one of which is seventy-six feet wide, and the rest decrease in width regularly, each by four feet, as they retire from the center. Between the two above mentioned bridges is that of Blackfriars, with elliptical arches, finished in the year 1770, at the expence of

of above a hundred and fifty thousand pounds, in beauty and magnificence not easily rivalled.

The houses of London are in general three or four stories high, their roofs covered with handsome yellow tiles; but both public and private buildings of extraordinary size and magnificence are very numerous. Conspicuous far above the rest in height and majesty is the vast cathedral of Saint Paul, which forms a noble object in the approach to the city. This is the greatest and noblest Protestant Church in the world, built of Portland-stone, three hundred and forty-four feet high, near five hundred long, two hundred and twenty-three broad, and occupying an area of above two English acres, exclusively of the church-yard, which surrounds it, and is inclosed with a railing of iron balusters five feet and a half high. This admirable fabric, which was first erected in the beginning of the fourteenth century, was, after several damages and repairs, totally destroyed in the conflagration of 1666. It was rebuilt on its present plan, in imitation of Saint Peter's church in Rome, by the great architect Sir Christopher Wren, in thirty-seven years, beginning in 1675, at the expence of near a million of pounds.

Among the numerous great edifices of this vast metropolis is the Tower, which may be considered as the citadel of London, supposed to have been founded by William the First, and finished by William Rufus, who inclosed it with walls; but it has been since augmented by other princes. In this fortress are kept the office of ordnance, the mint, the

the records, the jewel office and the regalia, as also the armories. A remarkable pile of building is the collegiate church of Westminster, commonly called Westminster-Abbey, venerable for its antiquity, it being supposed to have been founded in the eighth century, and an object of curiosity, as being the depository of the deceased British kings and nobility, and as also containing monuments raised to the memory of many personages illustrious for literary or military merit.

A remarkable structure, of a very kind from the above, is a fluted pillar, monumental of the conflagration of 1666, erected by Sir Christopher Wren in 1677, two hundred and two feet high, fifteen feet in the diameter of the shaft, adorned with emblematical figures, and ascendible by stairs on the inside. An uncommon building, also is that of Westminster-Hall, where the courts of justice are held. This consists of one vast room, supposed to be the greatest in Europe unsupported by pillars, unless we except the town-house of Padua ||, near three hundred feet long, and above seventy broad, but of a mean appearance on the outside, first built by William Rufus, but rebuilt by Richard the Second in 1397. Of a very mean appearance is Saint James's palace, in comparison of the extraordinary splendor of the British court, which resides here in winter, and of which this fabric is considered as the general residence, though several other palaces belong to the British royal family in London and its vicinage.

|| See Terraquea, vol. ii. p. 42.



Windfor.

The only palace of the British monarch, which displays true regal magnificence, is Windfor-castle, situate twenty-two miles westward of London, at the town of Windfor in Berkshire, on the southern side of the Tems, on a gently swelling eminence, which commands an extensive prospect over a most charming country. A castle is said to have stood here before the time of William the First who improved the place, but the fabric, as it now stands, though since improved, was built by Edward the Third. It consists of two spacious square courts with a round tower between them, and occupies an area of twelve acres. It has the advantage of a terrace-walk, one of the finest in the world, made by Queen Elizabeth, eighteen hundred and seventy feet in length. It has also the advantage of a lawn, or park, three miles in circuit, appropriated to the royal family; a greater park fourteen miles in compass, open for the amusement of gentry, and including the park, a forest thirty miles in circumference, in which however are many inhabitants, and even some towns. Windfor, or New Windfor, which has grown from the decay of an old town near it of that name, is large and handsome, and, in its political capacity, is a borough, returning two members to parliament.

Portf-  
mouth.

The town of Portsmouth stands in a low situation, at the south-western extremity of a district of Hampshire called Portsea, which at high-water is an island, fourteen miles in compass, but joined to the main land by a bridge. This town is of no great magnitude, containing perhaps little more than

than twenty thousand inhabitants, but is more regularly and strongly fortified than any other in Britain. It is chiefly remarkable for its stupendous docks and dock-yards, where immense quantities of materials are stored for the building of ships, this being the principal station of the British ships of war; for, its harbor, which consists of three parts, the main body and two branches, is doubtless one of the noblest in the world, its bottom being exempt from rocks and other impediments, its entrance unbarred and clear of obstructions, and its depth even at low water sufficient for the greatest ships, while it is completely sheltered from every wind, and capacious enough to accommodate some hundreds of vessels. A capital advantage also to this harbor is the safe and spacious road of Spithead opposite to it, a road twenty miles long and three broad, between the Isle of Wight and the main land of Hampshire, capable of accommodating a thousand ships at once without the least difficulty or danger. Portsmouth seems to have been first fortified to full effect by the great Queen Elizabeth. In its municipal capacity it is a corporation, borough, and market-town.

Salisbury stands in Wiltshire, of which it is the capital, in a valley, at the confluence of the river Willy with one of those streams which bear the name of Avon. These rivers, united with others, form a large stream, which is navigable to the sea from a place two miles below the city. This town is said to have had its origin in the reign of Richard the First, when the inhabitants of Old Sarum, *Sorbiodunum*,

biodunum, or Severia, a Roman town at the distance of a mile, began to forsake their former mansion, which in the reign of Henry the Seventh became quite waste, and to fix their habitation in this place, which became a city in the political sense of the word in the reign of Henry the Third, who granted it a charter of incorporation, and made it a county in itself. Salisbury, or New Sarum, is large and handsome. Its streets mutually cross at right angles, and are copiously supplied with water by canals faced with brick. But that which renders this town remarkable is its cathedral, the loftiest in Britain, and of so slender a construction as to create astonishment. It is built in form of a cross, four hundred and seventy-eight feet long, seventy-six broad, and, to the top of the spire, four hundred and ten feet high. It was finished in forty-two years ending in 1262, but has received some repairs long since.

Bath.

Bath, seated on the northern side of another river called Avon, in the county of Somerset, in a deep close valley surrounded by an amphitheatre of hills, is a small, but remarkably beautiful city, elegantly built of a fine kind of stone, and consisting of two towns, the old and the new. The streets are in general broad and well paved, particularly in the new town. The most splendid parts of the city are the buildings called the Two Crescents and the Circus, inhabited by people of consequence. The crescents are such in their appearance as to be entitled to rank among the most beautiful structures in the world. Bath is inclosed with a slight wall  
in



in which are four gates. It is a place of antiquity, having been a Roman town, and furnishing at this day several monuments of Roman antiquity. Attracted by its medicinal waters, a greater number of gentry resort to this town in spring and autumn than to any other in Britain; the number of families, who come to it from other places for health or amusement, being reckoned several hundreds commonly.

Bristol, formerly called Brightestow, and Brif-Bristol. tow, and pronounced even now Bristo, stands on both sides of the same Avon with Bath, at its confluence with the river Frome, in a low situation, but on the side of a gently rising ground, at the distance of four miles from the Severn sea, partly in the county of Somerset, but more in that of Gloucester. It is next to London the greatest city of Britain in commerce, wealth, and population; its inhabitants probably exceeding a hundred thousand in number. It is nearly of a circular figure about seven miles in compass; its buildings crowded, its streets narrow, and many of its houses five or six stories high. In a political sense it belongs to neither of the counties between which it lies, but is both a city and county in itself. When it was founded is unknown, and scarcely any mention of it is found in history before the year 1063. The narrowness of its port is remarkable. It may be called a dry harbor notwithstanding the river which forms it; for the vessels at ebb lie on an ouzy bed in a deep channel, but the returning tide lifts them to the height of the wharfs. Thus vessels of great  
burden

burden ascend to the quay, which runs on the north side of the town along the river Frome, or From; though many remain in a lower station at Hongroad, and others at Kingroad, which is still lower than the former.

Liver-  
pool.

Liverpool, situate in Lancashire, on the northern shore of the estuary of the river Mersey, and rising from the shore with an easy slope, is still inferior even to Bristol in the extent of its traffic, and the number of ships which it employs. Some reckon it second only to London in the appearance of wealth and industry. By this industry it has grown to its present magnitude from a very inconsiderable town; its population, which can hardly be less than sixty or seventy thousand, being at present at least ten times as great as it was even in the time of Queen Elizabeth; nor is it exceeded by more than a very few British towns in the beauty of the buildings and streets. Much has been added by art to the naturally advantageous situation of the place, particularly three basons, or wet-docks, capable of containing near four hundred ships of five hundred tons in perfect security\*. With respect to municipal privileges Liverpool is a corporation governed by a mayor and aldermen, and returning two members to parliament.

Lancaster. More handsome still than Liverpool is reckoned Lancaster, the chief town of Lancashire, seated on the river Lune or Lon, large, populous, and remarkable for its neat and clean appearance. Its

\* Newte, p. 31.

Roman relics are urged as a proof of its antiquity. It received its charter from King John, and has a mayor for its chief magistrate. It was burned by the Scots in an irruption in 1322, but has been rebuilt with much greater advantage. Its castle is used as a court of assize and a jail for the county. Lancaster enjoys large commercial dealings, and the river admits vessels of two hundred and fifty tons as high as the bridge of the town which consists of four arches.

Manchester, situate on the rivers Irk and Irwell <sup>Manchefs-  
ter.</sup> at their confluence, in Lancashire, is, in a political sense, only a village, or market-town, but inferior in magnitude to few cities in Britain, its inhabitants amounting to above seventy thousand †. It is reputed a town of considerable antiquity, but owes its present greatness entirely to its immense manufactures, particularly of cotton, which, beside the townsmen, are said to give employment to at least fifty or sixty thousand persons in the neighbourhood.

Birmingham, by a strange corruption called <sup>Birming-  
ham.</sup> Brimmigem, extends along the side of a hill in a form somewhat resembling that of a half-moon, in the county of Warwick, on the border of Staffordshire. It is in the same political predicament with Manchester, and appears to exceed it in number of inhabitants, who are said to be no fewer than a hundred thousand †. It resounds throughout with

† Newte, p. 27.

‡ Newte, p. 8.



strokes of hammers, its people being employed in prodigious manufactures of iron, steel, and other sorts of hardware. This town, great part of which is elegantly built, seems to have had existence at least as early as the eleventh century, but has been raised to its greatness by manufactures alone.

Norwich. Norwich, the capital of Norfolk, is a city of great extent, the walls being three miles in compass, and the whole town, including the suburbs, not less than six; but it is not proportionally populous, its inhabitants not exceeding the number of fifty, or at most, sixty thousand. Its houses are so intermixed with trees, that some have called it a city in a wood. It stands mostly on the slope of a hill on the river Yare, at the distance of about thirty miles by water from the mouth of that river, which is navigable, without assistance from art, quite up to the city. Six bridges are built on the river for the intercourse of the inhabitants of the opposite sides. The cathedral, first erected in 1096, is four hundred feet long, a hundred and eighty broad, and has a beautiful spire three hundred and seventeen feet high, the loftiest in Britain after those of Salisbury and Saint Paul's in London, built in 1361. Norwich is not mentioned in history before the year 1004, when it was ruined by the Danes. It has been augmented chiefly by means of woollen manufactures, which are so extensive at present that seven hundred thousand pounds worth of stuffs are said to have been manufactured in this town in one year, and above a hundred and twenty thousand persons, within the town and in its vicinage, are supposed

supposed to be employed in the several branches of this business. This town in its municipal capacity is a city, and its old castle is used as a jail.

York, the capital of Yorkshire, seems not much <sup>York.</sup> inferior to Norwich in size and population. It stands in a plain at the meeting of the three ridings, on both sides of a river called Ouse, which is navigable as high as the town by vessels of seventy tuns, and over which, for the connexion of the opposite parts of the city, is a bridge built in 1566, consisting of five arches, of which the middle is eighty-one feet in diameter, or rather chord, and fifty-one high. It is enclosed with walls which are still entire. Its castle is a public prison. Its most remarkable edifice is a vast and noble cathedral, or minster, as it is called, which, for magnificence of structure, has, in the opinion of some, the pre-eminence over all other Gothic fabrics. This admirable edifice, begun in the year 1227, and finished in 1426, is five hundred and twenty-four feet long, two hundred and eighty broad, and to the leads of the lantern steeple two hundred and thirteen high. York, having been a Roman town, boasts of many remnants of antiquity. It is a city in every sense, and is the only one in Britain, beside London, whose chief magistrate bears the title of Lord Mayor.

Newcastle upon Tyne, built on the uneven and steep declivity of a hill on the northern side of the <sup>Newcastle.</sup> river Tyne, in Northumberland, of which it is the capital, is joined by a great bridge to a suburb called Gateshead on the opposite side in Durham, built also

also on the declivity of a steep hill. It is fenced with a strong wall, in which are seven gates and as many turrets. The castle, old and ruinous, serving for a jail and house of sessions, overlooks the whole town, which, as its buildings are mostly old and close, has not the most elegant appearance, but is greatly enriched by its vast commerce in coals, and augmented so as to contain at present fifty thousand inhabitants. It is doubtless ancient, but its origin of uncertain date. It was first incorporated in 1251, and made a borough in 1282, governed by a mayor and aldermen.

Edin-  
burg.

Edinburg, the capital city of Scotland, situate about two miles southward of the Frith of Forth in Mid-Lothian, appears to travellers in a distant view with inexpressible grandeur, by reason of its aerial situation and the prodigious height of its houses. The old town, or main body of the city, is built on a hill, or a vast rock, which rises by a gradual, and almost imperceptible ascent from a plain on the east to its summit on the west, where it terminates in a frightful precipice three hundred feet high, and declines from the ridge to the north and south, more especially the latter, with a rapid descent. The principal part of this old town is called the High-street, which runs in a straight line from east to west, a mile in length and in some places eighty feet wide, occupying the ridge of the hill, whence above a hundred narrow lanes, called Wynds or Clofes, descend to the north and south down the steep declivities. On the southern side the descent of the lanes is almost perpendicular, and here they terminate



terminate in a street called the Cow-gate, which runs parallel to the High-street, but is narrower.

The buildings of the old town are so high and crowded, that few cities in the world contain so great a number of people in so small a space. The houses, built in general of a hard rough stone, are from seven to eleven stories high, including the subterranean apartments; but in a square called the Parliament Close, and on the southern declivity of the hill, some have no less than fourteen stories, where their walls rise from the descent of the rock; toward the ridge, however, where the foundation rests on the ascent, the walls of the same houses are less high by five or six stories. They are in general built with high gables, and are slated. They are ascended by winding stone stairs called Turnpikes, each story serving for a distinct family or shop, and many of these shops have stone stairs on the outside. The inconvenience of the above situation and mode of building may be easily conceived, and the want of cleanliness thereby occasioned has been a matter of reproach to this town, and to the Scottish people in general.

At the eastern end of the High-street, quite in the plain, stands an august pile of buildings called Holyrood-house, formerly the palace of the Scottish Kings, a spacious square surrounded with piazzas, but now in a ruinous condition; and at the western end of the same street, on the summit of the rock, stands the Castle, formerly deemed an impregnable fortress, as being surrounded with precipices on all sides except the eastern which is next the town, but  
at

at present neither impregnable nor strongly fortified. On the south of the town is the College, consisting of three courts, the buildings of which are mean and insufficient for the purpose.

When Edinburg was founded we know not, but it has certainly subsisted several centuries, and security was doubtless the motive for the choice of such a situation; the hill on which it is built being formerly accessible only from the east; for, the western is guarded by a precipice, and its northern and southern sides were closed each by a lake. The southern lake has been long ago drained, and its bed converted into dry ground: the northern has been so far filled as to be contracted into a canal, over which was erected in 1772 a stately bridge, eleven hundred and twenty-five feet long, and forty broad, with five arches, of which the two smallest are each twenty feet wide, and the others each seventy-two feet wide, and sixty-eight high. This bridge forms a communication between the old-town and a growing assemblage of much finer buildings, erected on a rising ground on the north-east, called the New-town. According to a late computation the number of people in the Old-town is above twenty-two thousand five hundred, in a suburb called Cannongate above six thousand, in other suburbs almost thirty-three thousand, in the hospitals a thousand, in the New-town above seven thousand; so that the whole population amounts to seventy thousand. Twelve thousand more are reckoned in Leith, which is the port of Edinburg not an English mile distant. Edinburgh, politically

cally considered, is a city, governed by a lord provost, which is but another name for a lord mayor, together with another magistrate called a dean of the guild, a guild council, and twenty-five members of a common council composed of merchants and tradesmen.

Glasgow, the second town in Scotland with respect to magnitude, but perhaps the first in Britain with respect to beauty, stands on the eastern banks of the river Clyde on a gently sloping declivity, containing near fifty thousand inhabitants, including the suburbs, which lie on the western or southern side of the river, and are joined to the city by two handsome bridges. The streets are broad and regular, mutually crossing at right angles. The four principal divide the city into nearly four equal parts, and meet in a spacious market-place in the center. The houses are in general four or five stories high, built of beautiful materials, and in a striking symmetry; beside which the town is adorned with many noble public buildings, the chief of which is the University, consisting of two courts with a library between them, beside a third court lately added. The country round Glasgow is much beautified with villas and rural improvements. The town draws great emolument from foreign commerce and manufactures of linen; though the river here being but seven feet deep, vessels of only small burden can sail so high; but ships of great size receive and discharge their cargoes at Port-Glasgow, nineteen miles lower, where a new quay was made in 1773, and an excellent dry-dock in



in 1782. Glasgow is at least six centuries old. In its municipal title it is a city, governed by a provost, three baillies, a dean of guild, and a common council of thirteen merchants and twelve mechanics.

Aber-  
deen.

Aberdeen, seated on the eastern coast of North-Britain, at the mouths of the rivers Dee and Don, consists of two towns, the Old and the New, containing all together about twenty-five thousand souls. The Old-town consists of only one street of but indifferent houses: The New is a well built city situate between the two rivers. A spacious harbour, from which the town appears to rise in the manner of an amphitheatre, has been rendered secure and commodious by two piers, the greater of which, built at the expence of sixteen thousand pounds, is of a curvilinear form, twelve hundred feet long, and ending in a head sixty feet in diameter and thirty-eight high. The land for several miles around, formerly sterile as the Arabian deserts, and hardly bringing sixpence an acre of yearly rent, has been so reclaimed by the citizens, at the expence of near two hundred pounds an acre, as to be rented at six or seven pounds an acre annually †.

History  
and anti-  
quities.

After the above short exemplification of the towns of Britain, I proceed to give a brief sketch of its history and antiquities. The island was very imperfectly known to the ancient Phenicians and Greeks under the name of Albion and other appel-

† Newte, p. 194—199.

lations.

lations. Its mines of tin induced the Phenicians, and after them the Carthaginians, to frequent its coasts. It was in those early ages inhabited by some tribes of the Celts, a people who in times of remote antiquity possessed great part of at least the west of Europe, and probably extended their settlements much farther. With the Celts were mingled Belgians, a people supposed to have been of German ancestry. The government of these ancient Britons was divided among many petty chieftains independent one of another, but occasionally confederating for mutual defence. Their religion, at least that of the Celts, was Druidism, a species of Pagan superstition inculcated by a body of priests called Druids, who immolated human victims, and maintained a scarcely to be paralleled influence over the minds of the laity. Monuments believed to be of Celtic workmanship are still to be seen chiefly in Wales, but also in many other parts of Britain and the British isles; particularly circular ranges of upright stones, supposed by many to have been used as temples by the Druids. To this class belong, beside a great number of others, the circle of Rowright, or Rowldrich, in Oxfordshire, thirty-five yards in diameter; and that of Long-Meg and her daughters in Cumberland, with a diameter of a hundred yards: but the most famous of all is the stupendous monument of Stonehenge.

This astonishing monument of antiquity stands on the Wiltshire downs, or Salisbury plain, about six miles northward of Salisbury, on the nor-eastern slope of an easy hill, near the summit, and in such

a posi-

a position, that the whole pile is visible from every approach, and strikes the spectator at a distance with a most whimsical appearance. It consists of four ranges of upright stones; the two outer concentric circles, the two inner concentric ovals. The greatest, or most outward range, a hundred and eight feet in diameter, was in its perfect state composed of thirty enormous stones, three feet thick, six broad, above twenty high, and placed at the distance of four feet one from another. On the tops of these were fixed thirty others, from seven to almost twelve feet in length each, serving as architraves or imposts to the uprights, and secured by tenons and mortices.

The inner circular range, lying almost nine feet within the outer, consisted of forty upright stones, without imposts, each about seven feet high and near two thick. The outward oval, placed at a considerable distance within the inner circle, is formed of ten huge upright stones from sixteen to twenty-two feet high, and six or seven broad, placed in pairs, and each pair crowned with an impost. The inner oval, three feet distant from the outer, consisted of nineteen stones of different heights, without imposts, and resembling Egyptian obelisks. At the upper end of what is conceived to have been the penetrale, or innermost space, is a slab of coarse blue marble, twenty inches thick, sixteen feet long, and four broad, pressed down by the weight of vast stones which have fallen upon it. The whole number of stones, of which the intire pile was composed, is computed to have been a hundred and forty,  
of



of which only ninety-two were remaining in 1778. This wonderful remnant of antiquity is environed with a circular double bank and ditch near thirty feet broad, at the distance of thirty-five yards from the outer circle around. This ancient temple of the Druids appears by the investigations of the learned to have served not only religious, but also astronomical purposes, and to have been calculated for the latitude where it is found †.

Of Celtic or Belgic erection are supposed also to Barrows. be many of the Barrows in different parts of Britain, nicely formed mounds of earth, which have been heaped on the graves of distinguished personages, and in which by digging are found urns with ashes and bones of the dead. These are so numerous about Stonehenge, that no less than fifty may be reckoned in one view in the evening, when they are rendered more distinctly discernible by the oblique beams of the sun. They are generally of a very elegant conical shape, and on elevated ground, in sight of this ancient temple. Near Abury in Wiltshire, sixteen miles northward of Stonehenge, is perhaps the greatest Barrow in Britain, called Silbury-hill, a hundred and seventy feet in perpendicular height, five hundred in diameter at bottom, and a hundred and five at top, where were found in 1723 a human skeleton bedded in chalk, the bit of a horse's bridle, deers horns, and an iron knife with a bone handle.

† Stukely's Stonehenge. Smith's Choir Gavr. Collinson's Beauties of British Antiquity, &c.

The Romans.

The first invaders of Britain, concerning whom we have any certain information, were the Romans, who under the conduct of Julius Cæsar, about fifty-five years before the birth of Christ, made two invasions, in two successive years, into the south-eastern parts of the island, but immediately abandoned their conquests; so that the inhabitants remained independent of foreign power, until the Romans again, about the forty-third year after the birth of Christ, under the command of Plautius, in the reign of the Emperor Claudius, conquered the same parts, and not only retained their acquisitions, but continued to extend their dominion, till under Julius Agricola, about the seventy-eighth year of the Christian era, they made a final conquest of the country, at least as far as the Grampian mountains. The most northern part, then called Caledonia, beyond the Friths of Clyde and Forth, was relinquished as of no value by this conqueror, who, in order to secure the Roman subjects in Britain from the incursions of the Caledonians, marked in the year eighty-one a limit quite across the land from Frith to Frith, guarded by a train of garrisons.

The Romans appear to have some time after abandoned all the country now called Scotland. The Emperor Hadrian, who arrived in Britain in the year one hundred and twenty, made a profound ditch and a vast rampart sixty miles long from Solway Frith to Newcastle upon Tyne. The country again between this rampart and the Forth and Clyde Friths was resumed by the Emperor

Antoninus

Antoninus Pius, who fortified, probably about the year one hundred and forty, the line in which Agricola had before stationed his garrisons. But all to the north of Hadrian's rampart was finally relinquished to the Caledonians, against whose irruptions a wall of stone sixty-eight miles long was built, some think, about the year two hundred and ten, by the Emperor Severus §. Protected by this vast fortification, and by various salutary arrangements, the Roman province in this island, comprehending almost all the modern South-Britain, flourished in agriculture and other branches of industry to such a degree, that the public revenue collected from it is supposed to have amounted to the annual sum of two millions of our present money; a vast treasure in those ages, when the precious metals were of a far higher value than in these.

The above mentioned fortified lines, alternately the boundaries of the Roman dominion in Britain, the one extending from the Frith of Clyde to that of Forth, the other from the Frith of Solway to the lower part of the river Tyne, have been accurately traced in their ruins by some modern antiquaries. The former, first garrisoned by Agricola, and afterwards much more completely fortified in the reign of Antoninus Pius, is distinguish-

Roman  
monu-  
ments.

§ Pinkerton the most laborious, learned, and judicious investigator of British antiquities, thinks it more probable that this extraordinary wall was built by the South-Britons in the year 426, when an auxiliary legion of Romans under Gallio came to assist them. Inquiry into the History of Scotland, vol. i. p. 47—55.



ed by the modern appellation of Graham's Dyke, and is found to have been a rampart of earth with a foundation of stone twelve feet thick, extending thirty-seven English miles in length, strengthened by the additional fortification of eighteen square castles, and having on its southern side a military way, and on its northern a ditch forty feet wide and thirteen deep.

The pretenture, or fortified lines of Hadrian, consisted of three aggers, or banks of earth, and a ditch, all parallel among themselves; but by far the greatest of all the Roman pretentures, and indeed of all their works in Britain, was the wall of Severus, which was eight miles longer than the lines of Hadrian, as being drawn in a winding course along eminences, so as to command every where a declivity on its northern side. It was a wall of stone and lime above sixty-eight English miles in length, twelve feet high exclusively of the parapet, and eight feet thick, strengthened with eighty-one square castles at nearly equal intervals, mostly sixty-six feet broad each, and with eighteen greater fortresses or stations disposed in like manner, having a great ditch on the northern side, and military ways all along from station to station. This vast piece of masonry, commonly called the Picts wall, is so thoroughly ruined that its vestiges are not easily found, though, not very many years past, some parts of it were standing to the height of from two or three to eight or nine feet; but in general the foundations only could be traced †.

† See Horsley's *Britannia Romana*, Collinson, &c.

Among the numerous other monuments of Roman antiquity in this island are the vestiges of their encampments on many of the hills, and their military roads, which were great causeways made for the convenient marching of their troops through the country. These roads are in many places almost defaced, in others almost entire. The four principal bear the names of the Fosse, Ikening-street, Watling-street, and Herman-street. The Fosse, paved with flints, Roman bricks, and great flag-stones, runs noreastward from Seaton in Devonshire through Bath and Lincoln to Saltfleet on the coast of Lincolnshire, near two hundred and forty English miles in length. Ikening, or Iknild-street, is supposed, but on more dubious grounds, to run nearly parallel to the former, from Dorchester in Dorsetshire to Yarmouth in Norfolk. Watling-street, which name however belongs to more than one Roman way in this island, is understood to pass from Dover by London and Saint Albans to Carnarvon. Herman-street appears most probably to be that which runs from London through Lincoln to Wintringham in Lincolnshire\*.

The Romans held possession of all the British territories to the south of Severus's-wall near four centuries; but at length, severely pressed nearer home by the furious irruptions of the northern barbarians, who threatened them with total destruction, they collected their armies toward the center of their empire, and, with other distant provinces,

Saxon invasion.

\* Horfeley.

abandoned Britain in the year 409 †. Forsaken by their defenders, the South-Britons, who had been subjects of Rome, habituated to servitude, unacquainted with the exercise of arms, and unaccustomed to think or to act for themselves, were incapable of efficaciously withstanding the violent incursions of the Caledonians, who, under the names of Picts and Scots, soon passed the feeble ramparts, feeble when destitute of warlike defenders, and with the fury of a torrent bore down all before them, spreading through the country desolation and dismay. In this deplorable situation of their affairs, after successive devastations, repulses, and retreats, of these barbarous enemies, in the space of forty years, the invaded people are said to have applied for succour to the Saxons, a piratical and warlike nation then inhabiting the western coasts of Germany and Denmark. Sixteen hundred of this nation, coming as auxiliaries into Britain about the year 449, under the conduct of Hengist and Horsa, quickly expelled the Caledonians, but soon after being joined by greater numbers of their countrymen, they resolved to conquer those whom they came to protect, and with all the treachery of unprincipled robbers, turned their arms against their allies ‡.

The

† Gibbon's *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, vol. vi. chap. 38.

‡ I have followed the commonly adopted report of our historians; but the probability is that the Saxons were not allies; but hostile invaders from their first appearance. See Gibbon as above. The term Saxons is used as a generic name. To speak  
more



The unfortunate South-Britons, now roused by extreme necessity, exerted too late a martial genius, and opposed these foreigners with obstinate, but unavailing valour. Large bodies of Saxons successively arrived and extended their conquests; so that in less than a hundred and fifty years from their first debarkation, most of the country now called England, with part of the Scottish Lowlands, was in the undisputed possession of these people. The western parts remained still in the hands of Celtic tribes. Cornwall however was soon involved in the Saxon conquests. Cumbria, containing Westmoreland, Cumberland, and part of Lancashire, seems not to have been finally conquered before the year 945; and Wales retained much longer a kind of independence. As the Saxons and their associates, comprehended under the general name of Anglo-Saxons, arrived at different times, and under different leaders, their settlements were divided into different, or separate states, in number seven, thence collectively denominated the Saxon Heptarchy. These petty kingdoms were at last, about the year 827, united into one, then first called the kingdom of England, under the government of Egbert; but the union was not complete before the year 959 in the reign of Edgar.

more particularly, the Vitæ, or Jutes, from the north of Jutland were the first settlers of this class, coming to Kent in the year 449. The first Saxons, properly so called, arrived in 477 from Germany: The Angles from the south of Jutland in 547. See Pinkerton's Dissertation on the Scythians or Goths, p. 194, 195.

Before

The  
Danes.

Before the commencement of the reign of Egbert, and even before the end of the eighth century, Scandinavian nations, inhabiting the coasts of the Baltic, a part of whom had taken possession of the countries abandoned by the Saxons, and had also been joined by numbers of Saxons who fled from the religious cruelty of Charlemagne, began, under the names of Danes and Normans, to infest with predatory fleets the coasts of Britain, as well as of the neighbouring countries. Their first appearance on the British coasts was in the year 787. Their depredations, desultory in the beginning, became in time of a most alarming nature; whole armies debarking at once and carrying devastation to the very center of the country.

Alfred.

All yielded to the force of the Danes, and the Anglo-Saxons were reduced to a most abject state of misery, when Alfred arose, by far the greatest and most amiable prince of all who ever have swayed the sceptre in Britain. Enlightened to an astonishing degree in those ages of ignorance, he was the profound scholar, and the consummate legislator and warrior. He overthrew the Danes in many desperate conflicts. He expelled some, and reduced the rest to peaceable subjection. He enforced a number of most salutary regulations, so that, after the most sanguinary wars, England enjoyed the sweets of a tranquility perhaps not equalled in any other period of its history. He was not only the patron, but also in his own person the successful cultivator of learning; and for the extension of knowledge, a thought which in such times of barbarism

barism could occur only to himself, he employed some ships of discovery, which penetrated into the White Sea. But the reign of this almost adorable sovereign, most deservedly to be stiled Alfred the Great, was but, as it were, a momentary interval of bright genial sunshine, interrupting for a little a settled melancholy wintry gloom. His reign, the former part of which was spent in warfare and carnage, amounted in all to thirty years. He died in the year 901, an example of what is most venerable among mankind, but which, alas! is a rare phenomenon, that of a true patriot king.

With the life of Alfred the light of England was extinguished. The Scandinavians recommenced hostilities, and after a series of bloody combats, alternate interval of truce and warfare, superiority and dejection, the invaders in the end prevailed, and made an entire conquest of England in the year 1017, under the command of Canute the Great, as he was stiled, who saw himself at once monarch of England, Denmark, and Norway. As the Scandinavians had nearly the same language, and doubtless the same origin, with the Anglo-Saxons, they in a short time coalesced with the conquered people, and, by a peaceable revolution in the hereditary succession, the crown reverted to a prince of the Saxon line, in the person of Edward surnamed the Confessor in the year 1041. On the death, without issue, of this weak, superstitious, and, I am almost inclined to add, detestable prince, a cruel husband, and an unpatriotic sovereign, in the year 1066, the throne was claimed by William, surnamed



firmamed the Bastard, Duke of Normandy; and England was reduced to a most deplorable state of slavery by a new band of adventurers, more advanced indeed in the arts of life, and under a more regular government, but not less cruel and insolent, than its former ferocious invaders.

The Norman conquest.

Harassed by the desolating inroads of the Scandinavians, the government of France had, in order to purchase peace, in the year 911, ceded the provinces of Neustria and Bretagne to Rollo, a leader of these formidable pirates, who soon converted his followers from a roving banditti into a settled legal community. Neustria received the name of Normandy, because its new inhabitants, the Scandinavians, were called Normans by the French. William the Bastard, who, a hundred and fifty years after Rollo's establishment, filled the ducal throne of Normandy, demanded, after the decease of Edward the Confessor, the kingdom of England, in right of a will said to have been made in his favor by that weak prince; but his claim was justly neglected, and, with the acquiescence of the people, the sceptre was seized by Harold a great and warlike nobleman.

William, assembling an army of above sixty thousand of the boldest adventurers from different parts of the continent, but chiefly from France and the Netherlands, invaded England in October 1066, and, at Hastings in Suffex, by superior discipline, and the advantage of cavalry, of which the English were destitute, defeated the army of his opponent, consisting of about the same number of men, in one

one of the most obstinate and bloody battles recorded in history, in which Harold himself was slain. This battle decided the fate of England, which immediately submitted to this foreign usurper. William, now stiled the Conqueror, feigned at first lenient measures, but soon took occasion to confiscate all the lands of the English and confer them on his Normans, who, despising a people so easily subjugated, reduced them to a most lamentable state of servitude, and treated them with the utmost insolence and cruelty.

What lessons of instruction may the English of the present day draw from the contemplation of their country's history? Enervated by the Roman yoke, the ancient South-Britons felt all the miseries of havoc and spoil from the Caledonians, and, trusting their defence to pirates, were exterminated or enslaved by the Anglo-Saxons §. These in their turn, debilitated by corruptions of the pure doctrines of Christianity, by absurd ecclesiastic institutions, and the influence of an ignorant rapacious priesthood, fell a prey to the Danes. Again, the two last, incorporated into one nation, but enfee-

§ It has been commonly understood that the Saxons exterminated in Britain the people whose lands they seized; but Pinkerton (*Inquiry into the History of Scotland*) has rendered it very probable, if not historically evident, that the chief ancestors of the present English were Belgians of the German or Gothic race, who possessed the southern and eastern parts not only before the Saxon, but even before the Roman invasion. The Saxons merely enslaved, neither exterminated nor expelled these people.

bled

bled by the same cause, sunk under the most abject and galling slavery of the Normans. At the death of the Confessor a very great part of the lands of England, most probably not less than a third of the whole, were in possession of the clergy, exempted from all taxes, and consequently contributing nothing to the common service of the nation ||. This, with several other considerations, demonstrates the facility of the Norman conquest to have been, at least in a great measure, caused by the corruption and abuse of religion.

The English, or as they might then be called, Anglo-Danish, nobility and gentry were exterminated or reduced to beggary, nor, for almost a century after the conquest, were any but Normans and other foreigners admitted to any offices of trust or emolument. The people were not only obliged to undergo every drudgery for their haughty tyrants, but were also pillaged without mercy, and many were even put to excruciating tortures, that they might be forced to discover where effects of any value lay, which they might happen to have. The conquerors even endeavoured to obliterate the language of the conquered. The use of the English tongue was prohibited in schools and all public transactions, while the Norman dialect of the French was the common speech of all who pretended to rank above the lowest vulgar. Yet in a long course of time these foreign settlers were so absorbed by commixture with the great mass of the English,

|| Henry's History of Britain, vol. ii. p. 187. Dublin, 1789.  
that



that all distinction ceased, and the French was no longer known but as a foreign language.

A few monuments supposed to be Anglo-Saxon, or Anglo-Danish, may here be mentioned, though of an incomparably inferior nature to those of the Romans; but as to Anglo-Norman works, the ruins of castles and of abbies, an account of them would be incompetent to such a treatise as this. Trenches with great banks of earth, made doubtless for protection against hostile irruptions, and commonly attributed to the Anglo-Saxons in the times of the heptarchy, are found in some parts. Such are Fleams-dyke and Brent-ditch in Cambridgeshire, and Wansdyke in Wiltshire; but some attribute these to the ancient Britons. Such, above all others, is Claudh-Offa, or Offa's-dyke, said to have been made by Offa King of the Mercians, one of the nations of the Anglo-Saxon heptarchy, to defend his subjects from the incursions of the Welch. This famous rampart, consisting of a high bank between two trenches, here and there strengthened by small artificial mounts, is traced above eighty miles from the river Wye near the Severn-sea along the counties of Hereford and Radnor, and through that of Montgomery, to the Clwydian hills beyond the source of the river Dee. Equal in depth of trench, but not in extent, to that of Offa, is Wat's-dyke, which accompanies the former at unequal distances of from five hundred yards to three miles.

On

On the norwest side of a high steep hill in Berkshire is, as it were, engraved the figure of a white horse in a galloping posture, visible at least at the distance of twelve miles, its extent occupying nearly the area of an acre. The soil is so cut away as to leave the shape of the animal in the chalk of which the hill is composed; a trench two or three feet deep and ten wide forming the lines of the body and limbs. The figure is preserved by the neighbouring peasantry, who assemble on certain stated days to scour and cleanse it, holding a festival on the ground at the same time. On the southwest side of a hill near Leigh in Wiltshire is another figure of a white horse, but in a walking attitude, a hundred feet long from the tail to the ear, and as many high from the fore-feet to the head, all scooped or hollowed out of the chalk. This and the former are imagined to have been made by Alfred in commemoration of two great victories over the Danes. In Warwickshire on the side of Edgehill is made in like manner in a red stratum the figure of a red horse about thirty feet high to the head, and kept in a state of preservation by the occupier of a farm called Red-horse-farm, who is obliged under penalty of forfeiture to have that business performed.

Magna  
Charta.

William the Conqueror, or William the First, whose descendants have since his time to the present day filled the throne by hereditary right, though not always in the direct line of primogeniture, established over England, which he divided into sixty thousand knights-fees, an almost absolute monarchy combined

combined with the feudal system. Oppressors of the lower classes on one hand, the barons or great nobility found themselves so oppressed on the other by the tyranny of the crown, that, in the reign of King John, the seventh in succession inclusively from William the Conqueror, they formed an association and extorted from this monarch, in the year 1215, an instrument called Magna Charta, or the Great Charter, in which were contained a number of concessions favorable to the liberty, not only of the nobles, but also of all others who were not a state of villanage or the lowest slavery; for, as the nobles were unable to effect their purpose without the assistance of the lower orders, they were obliged to admit these into a participation of the advantages. This charter, though by no means uniformly maintained, served as the ground work of English liberty, and was confirmed with amendments by several of the successors of John, particularly by the warlike Edward the First, who sanctioned it in the most ample form.

In the reign of Henry the Third, the son and immediate successor of John, the regal power, which had been grossly abused to the grievous oppression of the subjects, was wrested for a time out of the hands of the monarch by a combination of nobles, at the head of which was Simon Mountfort, Earl of Leicester. This nobleman, when he summoned a parliament in 1265, ordered two knights to be returned from each county, and deputies from several cities and boroughs, to sit as members in this parliament. This was the origin of the House of Commons.



Commons, which “proved soon, when summoned by the legal princes, one of the most useful, and, in process of time, one of the most powerful members of the national constitution, and gradually rescued the kingdom from aristocratical as well as from regal tyranny. The feudal system, with which the liberty, much more the power of the commons, was totally incompatible, began gradually to decline; and both the king and the people, who felt its inconveniences, contributed to favour this new power, which was more submissive than the barons to the regular authority of the crown, and at the same time afforded protection to the inferior orders of the state\*.” The parliament, however, seems to have at first consisted of only one house; nor, perhaps, is it possible to discover the precise time when the commons formed a separate house. Most probably this custom was established insensibly, and the separation seems to have been completely formed in the year 1343. This excellent institution has continued, with some short interruptions and small variations, through more than four centuries †.

Conquest  
of Wales.

In the reign of Edward the First, who was the ninth monarch of the Norman line, and who of all the princes of that line formed the best projects for the solid interest of his kingdom, conducted however by ways little consistent with justice or humanity, Wales was conquered and annexed to England. Into this country and Cornwall many of the

\* Hume's History of England, vol. ii chap. 12.

† Henry's History of Britain, vol. iv. p. 337—340.

ancient Britons had fled for refuge from the exterminating sword of the Anglo-Saxons, where, uniting with the inhabitants of these countries, they endeavoured to maintain their independence. Cornwall was completely subdued in the reign of Athelston the Anglo-Saxon monarch before the middle of the tenth century; but in Wales the old Britons made a stand for a much greater length of time, and their posterity remain little mixed with Saxons or other foreigners to this day.

This rugged country, formerly named Cambria, began about the end of the sixth century to be called Wales. It appears to have been at that time under the divided government of six princes independent one of another, but acknowledging the supremacy of one of the number residing in North-Wales. A little before the middle of the ninth century, Wales became united under one sovereign in the person of Rhoderic, surnamed, without any apparent reason, the Great. This prince consented to the regular payment of a tribute, which probably had been before exacted, to the king of the English or Anglo-Saxons, and made a division of his realm into three principalities, which were inherited by his three sons.

Other divisions, attended by internal commotions and intestine feuds, greatly diminished the force of the Welch, and exposed them to the ambitious attempts of the kings of England, against whose invasions they had only to oppose the fastnesses of their country, and their impetuous valor in desultory onsets. In the year 1063, Harold, who

then acted as general of Edward the Confessor, and who soon after succeeded that monarch for a time in the throne of England, reduced the Welch princes to a temporary vassalage. More permanent inroads were made in the reign of William Rufus, the second monarch of England in the Norman line, toward the end of the eleventh century, when several Norman noblemen obtained possession of the southern parts of Wales, and much also of the northern, where they acted with almost regal authority under the title of Lords of the Marches, bridling the country with strong castles to secure their possessions. At length, near the middle of the thirteenth century, Henry the Third of England, considering the Welch as irrecoverably reduced to a state of vassalage, gave to his son Edward the title of Prince of Wales.

The Welch however had never been completely conquered. Alternately submitting to tribute and having recourse to arms, they frequently stormed the Anglo-Norman castles, and made ruinous incursions into the bordering counties of England. The princes of North-Wales continued to rule their native subjects, and, though generally obliged to acknowledge the supremacy of the kings of England, maintained a court as independent monarchs till the year 1277, when the country was finally conquered by Edward the First, who, in a parliament held at Rhuydland in Flintshire in 1282, united it to his English kingdom. This monarch also conferred the title of Prince of Wales on his infant son born in the principality in the castle of Carnar-



von, a title still retained by the heir apparent; but Wales was not thoroughly incorporated with England till the year 1536, when in a parliament held by Henry the Eighth the separate jurisdictions of several great lords, or lords marchers, were abolished, the authority of the king's courts extended every where, and the people admitted to all the privileges of the English †.

In the year 1338, Edward the Third, the eleventh king of England from the Norman conquest, claimed the French crown in right of his mother, who was of the royal family of France, and in support of his title invaded that kingdom. The vast efforts made to enforce this very impolitic and ill founded claim caused innumerable mischiefs to the English and French nations, and laid the foundation of a mutual hereditary antipathy, greater on the side of the English, though with less reason, as they were the aggressors. “From this period we may date the commencement of that great animosity, which the English have ever since borne to the French; which has so visible an influence on all future transactions, and which has been, and continues to be the spring of many rash and precipitate resolutions among them §.”

In the reigns of Edward the Third and of Henry the Fifth, who succeeded to the throne in the year 1413, the French were defeated in many battles

† See Warrington's History of Wales.

§ Hume, vol. ii. chap. 15. This has been more strongly exemplified since Mr. Hume's death in the year 1793.

with dreadful slaughter, and their provinces laid waste by the ravages of the invaders; while England, though victorious, miserably lavished, in compliance with the unwarrantable ambition of her princes, her blood and treasure in pursuit of an object, the attainment of which would have involved her ruin; for, if France had been conquered, that kingdom would have been made the seat of government, and England, in spite of any precautions to the contrary, would have sunk into an abject province of the French empire. Happily for both nations, the English were expelled from the French territories in the reign of Henry the Sixth, so that they had only Calais remaining to them in 1450, and this they continued to retain till the year 1558, in the reign of Queen Mary, when it was recovered by the arms of France.

The roses, The invasions of the French dominions by the English, and their expulsion thence, were succeeded by most calamitous and destructive wars at home, which almost exterminated the nobility of England, and prodigiously thinned its population. The throne had been usurped from Richard the Second, grandson of Edward the Third, in the year 1399, by Henry, Duke of Lancaster, who swayed the sceptre under the title of Henry the Fourth, and left the undisputed possession of the crown to his son Henry the Fifth. But in the reign of Henry the Sixth the son and successor of the last, Richard Duke of York, descended from the second son of Edward the Third, began to advance pretensions to the crown by a priority of birth-right in prejudice

dice of the reigning monarch, who derived his descent from the third son of the same Edward. This claim gave rise to a long, obstinate, and most sanguinary civil war between the houses of York and Lancaster, called the war of the two Roses, because the ensign of the Yorkists was a white rose, and that of the Lancastrians a red.

In this ruinous war, which commenced in 1455, the Duke of York soon lost his life; but his son Edward, after a series of desperate conflicts, found himself securely in possession of the monarchy under the name of Edward the Fourth. Edward the Fifth, a boy in the thirteenth year of his age, was his successor; but this young monarch was murdered by Richard, Duke of Gloucester, his uncle, who usurped the throne with the stile of Richard the Third. This cruel usurper being slain in 1485, in the battle of Bosworth, fought against Henry Earl of Richmond a prince of the Lancastrian line, the latter ascended the throne with the title of Henry the Seventh, and, marrying the daughter of the deceased King Edward the Fourth, who was heiress of the house of York, united the claims of the rival families, and put an end to the war of the Roses. With this war was also extinguished the line of Plantagenet kings, which had commenced in Henry the Second, the fifth monarch of the Norman race, and ended in Richard the Third. Henry the Seventh, who was the nineteenth monarch from the Norman conquest, was the first of the line of Tudor, which ended with the great and magnanimous, but by no means faultless,



less, Queen Elizabeth in the year 1603, when a new line, that of Stuart, began its reign, not only over England, but over all Britain and the system of British islands.

Retro-  
spect of  
Scotland.

Before the dereliction of Britain by the Romans, the northern barbarians of the island, who made predatory wars on these people and their subjects of South-Britain, were distinguished into two nations, the Picts and Scots. The Picts appear to have been the true ancient Caledonians described by Tacitus, the descendents of Scandinavian colonists, and the chief ancestors of the present Lowland-Scots. The ancient Scots mentioned by the Romans seem to have been a colony from Ireland, inhabiting Argyle and the neighbouring parts ||. In the Saxon invasions of Britain a colony of Angles fixed itself in the east of Scotland and in Northumberland. The Anglie monarchy of Northumberland, by far the greatest of the heptarchy, extended to the Frith of Forth, and held in subjection the Britons or Welch of Strathclyde, a territory bordering the river of that name. About the year 685 the Picts recovered the country as far as the Tweed, and reduced the Northumbrian kingdom into far narrower limits. By some unknown events about the year 843 Kenneth, King of the Picts, united Scotland into one kingdom; but the country assumed not this name before the beginning of the eleventh century\*.

|| See Pinkerton's Inquiry.

\* Pinkerton.

The government of Scotland, whenever, or by whatever means, reduced into one monarchy, was in fact a feudal aristocracy, the power of the monarch being little more than nominal. The Scots, generally in a state of amity, though sometimes at war, with their kindred bordering people, were actuated with no extraordinary degree of antipathy toward the English till the reign of Edward the First, who making a temporary conquest of Scotland in the year 1296, and twice afterward subduing it when it had revolted, would probably have united all Britain into one great insular kingdom if he had lived a few years longer. But from the bloody wars of Edward originated an inveterate national enmity, the cause of many subsequent calamities. In the reign of his weak and unfortunate successor, Edward the Second, the Scots established their independence under Robert Bruce, who fixed the Scottish crown on his own head, and left the inheritance to his posterity. Scotland thence continued an independent kingdom till the year 1603, when, on the vacancy of the English throne by the death of Elizabeth, James the Sixth of Scotland, descended by his mother from Henry the Seventh of England, received the Sceptre of that kingdom by right of inheritance under the title of James the First, and thus, (for Ireland had been conquered by the arms of Elizabeth,) reigned with an undisputed title sole monarch of all the British islands.

In the reign of this monarch, ideas of political freedom began to be more openly discussed and more widely diffused than formerly among the English.

Progress  
of liberty.

lish. Their Anglo-Saxon ancestors had brought from the German and Scandinavian forests a high spirit of independence and a democratical form of government; but, after their settlement in Britain, a great inequality of property produced a mixture, and at length, especially after the dissolution of the heptarchy, a preponderance of aristocratic power. The conquest of England by the Normans under William the Bastard extinguished whatever had survived of democratic influence, and greatly exalted the force of the monarchy. The establishment of the great charter abridged the regal power by regular limits, elevated the aristocracy, and gradually introduced some tincture of democracy. But this tincture gave but a feeble shade of liberty to the wretched commons, for a feudal aristocracy in a great measure prevailed, and though the king was limited, the people were not free.

On the accession of Henry the Seventh, a new scene began to open in the political theatre of England. The bloody wars of the roses having exterminated the great nobility, who could have opposed the extension of regal power, Henry by his industry, vigor, and severity tempered with wisdom, strained the prerogative to a pitch unknown to his predecessors, and caused the enacting of regulations which tended to depress the aristocracy and raise the commons. A new accession of influence and power was gained by his successor Henry the Eighth, who abolished the papal supremacy in his kingdom, and constituted himself head of the English church, vesting himself with the ecclesiastical  
in



in addition to the civil monarchy. Thence the execution of the laws was more extensive and regular, unimpeded by the protection of clerical habits and the asylum of the church. Under a more equal and severe administration of justice, industry augmented the property and influence of the commons; while a more sumptuous mode of living, attendant on encreasing commerce, tended to diminish the fortunes and noxious prevalence of the nobility.

The humiliation of petty tyrants, the establishment of order, and the execution of more equal laws by the almost absolute power of the Tudors, enabled the people to erect a regular and equitable plan of liberty in succeeding times. A spirit of freedom, aided by religious enthusiasm, began to appear among the commons in the reign of Elizabeth the last of this line; but that vigorous and arbitrary, yet popular and wise princess, who knew where to stop at a dangerous crisis, prevented its ebullition in her time. In the reign of the weak and pedantic James, despicable from attachment to unworthy favorites, and ostentatious of despotic power, it spread more openly and with some effect. Inflamed by the cruel administration, the disingenuous duplicity, and obstinate pride † of his son

† What a pity that the judicious and elegant historian Hume has shamefully disguised the characters of Charles and the other Stuarts! Certain it is that "the end which he proposed was to sacrifice the public confidence, of which every historian ought to be ambitious, on the altar of riches and preferment. At the reign of Elizabeth he leaves the right road, and ceases to follow the track of truth." D'Archenholz' Picture of England.

and

successor Charles the First, it blazed out with dreadful fury, and set all in combustion. A fierce domestic war between Charles and his parliament terminated with the defeat and captivity of the unfortunate monarch, who after the form of a solemn trial was condemned and beheaded in the year 1649. The government was then converted into a commonwealth; but the famous, or infamous, Oliver Cromwell, who by a few years experience had become an able general and crafty politician, rendered himself master of the state under the title of Protector, and governed absolutely by means of a military force.

On the death of this extraordinary chief, and the resignation of his son Richard, who succeeded him in the protectorship, the regal government was restored, and Charles the Second, the eldest son of the formally murdered monarch, ascended the throne of his ancestors in the year 1660. This prince, with a most polished exterior and engaging address, was an unprincipled voluptuary, destitute of every virtue which ought to adorn a sovereign or a man. During the latter part of his life he governed absolutely under the forms of law, and was succeeded by his brother James the Second, a most cruel tyrant † and a bigot, who resolved to rule as a despot,

† Facts, related by Hume, alone prove James to have been a monster of cruelty; but the same historian without any foundation in truth gives him the praise of sincerity. Doubtless "few characters which have entered the page of history furnish more numerous

despot, and the Britons for some time seemed inclined to bow their necks to the yoke. If the arbitrary principle of James had been seconded by great abilities, or if he had been of the popular and established religion of his country, he might doubtless have destroyed the liberty of his people, and established a purely absolute monarchy. A great part of the English have been always favorers of this kind of government; and it is owing to their good fortune and the exertions of a few, not to the merit of the nation in general, that they are not at this day as enslaved a people as any in Europe.

Fortunately for the cause of genuine liberty, whose great asylum has been this island; fortunately for the exaltation of human nature, which without such freedom must remain without energy; the headlong bigotry of James, who aimed at the

numerous examples and indisputable proofs of dissimulation, duplicity, and want of truth, than occur in the private and political conduct of James." Somerville's *Political Transactions*, Dublin 1793, p. 678. Of this he brings a number of incontrovertible proofs. Somerville also says, concerning his and Charles the Second's government—"Subornation of witnesses, packing of juries, the debarring of the accused from the means of defence, the overbearing menaces of judges, the elaborate perversion of evidence, a savage sporting with calamity, exorbitant fines, cruel and arbitrary sentences, the severest penalties of law inflicted upon scanty proof to gratify the pique or resentment of a tyrannical prince—these convey to the mind a more concise and affecting conception of national misery, than what is excited by speculating on the consequences of new claims of prerogative and the unconstitutional religion of the prince."

P. 347.

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immediate depression, and the ultimate extirpation of the Protestant religion in his dominions, without sufficient judgment to provide efficacious means, spread a great and universal alarm among his Protestant subjects, some of whom made application to the Prince of Orange for relief. This great man, who was Stadtholder, or supreme magistrate, of the Dutch Netherlands, and at once the nephew and son-in-law of James, came with a Dutch army to the rescue of the oppressed Britons; the tyrant fled, and, as the well merited reward of the deliverance, the Prince, in conjunction with Mary his consort the daughter of James, was invested with the regal dignity in 1688, with the title of William the Third §.

§ "In the character of William we turn our eyes to sterling merit, naked and unadorned; to stern integrity, incorruptible patriotism, undaunted magnanimity, unshaken fidelity; but no splendid dress or gaudy trapping to arrest the attention of the superficial observer. A deliberate effort of the understanding is necessary to perceive and estimate its deserts." Somerville, p. 728. This is diametrically opposite to the character of Charles the Second. "In the character of Charles we are struck with a brilliancy of wit and gracefulness of manners, destitute of any one ingredient of principle or virtue." p. 728. This excellent writer, who always proves what he advances, speaks thus elsewhere of the administration of this latter prince exercised in Scotland under his approbation. "Examples of oppressive government in Scotland are so various and so enormous, that one is at a loss to reduce them to any class, or to make any selection of them. There is not any species of tyranny, fines, arbitrary imprisonments, military executions, tortures, &c. that was not exercised, nor was there any order of men who did not in their turn groan under the load of arbitrary power." p. 116, 117.

By

By this great revolution was brought to its justly admired pitch of excellence the system of English liberty, which, founded on the great charter of King John, amplified and improved by the petition of right obtained from the unfortunate Charles the First, and fortified by the act of Habeas Corpus made in the reign of Charles the Second, was completed by the Declaration of Rights at the accession of William, and by the bill of Rights soon after enacted. Thus, after a continued struggle through the reigns of four monarchs between the royal prerogative and the privilege of parliament, the revolution of William happily ended the dispute. "By it a more uniform edifice was at last erected. The monstrous inconsistency, so visible between the ancient Gothic parts of the fabric and the recent plans of liberty, was fully corrected: and, to their mutual felicity, king and people were finally taught to know their proper limits and boundaries ||."

To William succeeded a daughter of James, Anne the last and vastly the best of the Stuart <sup>The</sup> union. race\*. In the glorious reign of this good Queen,

|| Hume, vol. viii, chap. 70.

\* This good princess sincerely loved her subjects, and by no means wished to oppress them with taxes. All the expences of her civil list seldom exceeded five hundred and fifty thousand pounds, out of which she expended very great sums for the public benefit. Not content with this, she formed immediately before her death a plan of retrenchment, which would have reduced her expences to less than four hundred and fifty thousand pounds. How has her example been followed by succeeding monarchs!

who

who humbled the pride of France and Lewis the Fourteenth, the attainment of a most important object was accomplished, which had been several times before attempted, but as often frustrated by detestable narrow national prejudices. England and Scotland, though so far united since the accession of James the First in 1603, as to be jointly under the common government of one monarch, were still entirely distinct kingdoms, each with a parliament of its own, quite independent of the other, and consequently liable by a revolution in the succession to become quite separate, as they had formerly been. But happily, by the efforts of Anne, in 1707 a complete union was formed, and the two kingdoms incorporated into one, under the denomination of the kingdom of Great Britain.

Anne was succeeded in 1714 by George the First, who was Elector of Hanover, and who had been constituted successor by act of parliament, to the exclusion of the Stuart family, because he was the next Protestant heir, being son of the Princess Sophia, who was grand-daughter of James the First, George, who was the thirtieth monarch from the Norman conquest, the second from the union, and the first of the house of Hanover the present reigning family, effectually depressed the faction of the Tories, who were favorers of absolute monarchy, of indefeasible hereditary succession, and of French influence; but it is remarkable that the opposite or Whig party, who always before combated for the liberty of the subjects, and for the limitation of regal power, made, when they attained the uncontrolled



trolled ascendancy in this and the following reign, some breaches in the noble fabric of liberty, which had been completed in William's time.

Whatever defects may have been suffered to remain in the constitution of England when it received its final improvement by the revolution of King William, and whatever deterioration the system of British government may since have undergone by the silent course of affairs or new legal institutions, it certainly approaches nearest to perfection, and comprises the most genuine political liberty, of all governments which have ever been known to subsist, on this side of the Atlantic \*. It is a hereditary monarchy, in some respects almost absolute, in others greatly limited, so as, on the whole, to afford the most ample protection to the subjects, and to leave their persons and properties in the most entire security; the monarchy being so combined with aristocracy and democracy, that these three powers, operating as mutual checks, counterpoise each the other two, and retain the state in an equilibrium; like three powers in natural philosophy, proportional to the sides of a triangle, and exerted in directions respectively parallel thereto. More than a bare outline of this admirable system is not to be expected in a concise treatise of general geography †.

The

\* I intend hereafter to give as ample a view as the plan of this work can possibly admit of the government of the British-American States.

† Mr. Mitford in his History of Greece, a work which merits the highest praise, adverts to the British constitution, and observes,

The legislative authority of the state, that is, the power of establishing, explaining, altering, and repealing laws, is lodged entirely in the parliament, which is composed of three distinct parts, the King, and the two estates of the realm, called the House of Lords, and the House of Commons.

House of  
Lords.

The House of Lords, which is commonly conceived to be the aristocratic, and is in fact the oligarchic part of the constitution, is composed of Lords Spiritual, and Lords Temporal. The former are the members of the hierarchy, twenty-six in number. The latter are the peers of the realm, or the hereditary lay nobility, bearing severally the titles of Duke, Marquis, Earl, Viscount, or Baron. But, as in Britain the title of nobility descends to the eldest son alone, the heads only of noble families in a direct line are peers; the rest being reckoned part of the people, and forming, as it were, the

observes, that it is composed of monarchy, oligarchy, aristocracy, and democracy; the House of Lords resembling the oligarchies of ancient Greece, and the House of Commons the aristocracies; while the privileges which the people have of electing the members of the House of Commons, of presenting petitions and remonstrances to the King, of publishing their grievances by means of a free press, and of being tried by juries of their equals, constitute a considerable proportion of democratic influence. This idea is doubtless just, and not inconsistent with the commonly received notion that the government is composed of three powers; since the oligarchy may be considered as a part of the aristocracy, and the democratic influence to operate with considerable effect on the House of Commons in particular; but that this house is in a great proportion aristocratical is indubitable.

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links, which connect the commons to the nobility; and though the heirs apparent of all noblemen above the rank of Viscounts bear noble titles before their actual accession to their estates and honours, yet those are only Lords by courtesy, and form no part of the peerage or oligarchy.

The number of members of the House of Lords is uncertain, as it gradually encreases by the creation of new peers, which always depends solely on the power and will of the king. Every peer of South-Britain may by birth-right take his seat in this house; but the case is different with the North-British peerage, who, according to the act of Union, are collectively represented by Sixteen Peers, elected by, and from among their own body. Though the Lords Spiritual are only lords of parliament and not nobles, and though they are considered in law as a separate estate from the Lords Temporal, they are yet in practice so thoroughly blended with them, that they both in reality form only one estate. Every peer may make any other lord of parliament, whether spiritual or temporal, his proxy, by licence from the king, to vote for him in his absence; a privilege which no member of the House of Commons can have. Each peer has also a right, by leave of the house, when a vote passes contrary to their sentiments, to enter his dissent on the journals of the house, with the reason for such dissent, which is usually stiled his Protest. The Speaker of the House of Lords, whose office is to preside there, and to manage the formality of business, is the Lord Chancellor, or Keeper of the King's Great



Seal, or any other appointed by the King's commission. If none be appointed by the crown, the House, it is said, may elect a person for the purpose †.

House of  
Commons

The House of Commons consists of deputies elected by the people in the several counties, towns, and such incorporated societies as are vested with that franchise. Each deputy, once elected, is considered as a representative of the British people at large, and not of his constituents only; nor is he obliged to act by the advice of his constituents: and the whole body of deputies collectively taken are considered as representatives of the whole body of the Commons of Britain, though the electors are but a small part of the nation, and many of them are virtually nominated by noblemen, or by the court, by influence on those commons who are the nominal electors. The qualification of a county elector is to possess a landed property, called a freehold, of at least forty shillings yearly value, and at least for term of life. This qualification was fixed in the reign of Henry the Sixth, when forty shillings had as great efficient value as twenty pounds at least at the present time §; so that here, by adhering to the letter of the institution, the spirit of it is totally lost. Those who elect the deputies of towns are called freemen, citizens, or burghesses; terms which imply certain qualifications expressed in the several charters of the towns.

† Blackstone's Commentary, Book 1. Chap. 2.

§ Henry's History of Britain, vol. v. p. 329.

Every elector must be at least twenty-one years of age. In every election a majority of suffrages is decisive, but if any of the candidates suspects unfair proceedings in the election, an appeal may be made to the House of Commons itself when assembled, and the grievance redressed by a committee. The President of this House is one of the members of it, elected by the House itself, and approved by the King. He is denominated the Speaker, because he is, as it were, the voice of the House; the sense of the assembly being conveyed through him to the throne. This president however, cannot give his opinion, or enter into the debate of any question in the House; though the Speaker of the House of Lords, if he be a lord of parliament, is not subjected to any such restriction. Lords by courtesy are eligible as members of the House of Commons, but peers and ecclesiastics are totally excluded. Every knight of the shire ought to have by law a clear estate of the value of six hundred pounds yearly, and every citizen or burgess returned to parliament an estate of three hundred pounds; except the eldest sons of peers, and of persons qualified to be knights of shires, and except the representatives of the two universities.

The members of this House are in number five hundred and fifty-eight, which number is thus constituted: each of the forty counties of England properly so called returns two deputies, called knights of the shire; each of the twelve counties of Wales, including the isle of Anglesea, elects one: the thirty-three shires contained in Scotland, including the

ishes of the Hebrides, Orkney, and Shetland, send in all only thirty deputies; for no one of them is represented by more than one deputy, while the two shires of Bute and Cathness have between them only one, whom they choose alternately; and the same is the case with Nairne and Cromartie, and with Clacmanan and Kinross: London, including the city of Westminster and the borough of Southwark, returns eight members: a hundred and eighty-eight other towns of England two members each: five other English boroughs one each: the two English Universities of Oxford and Cambridge two each: eight towns on the south coast of England, called Cinque Ports, each two deputies styled Barons of the Cinque Ports: the borough of Pembroke in Wales two burgesses: ten other Welsh boroughs one each: and sixty-six royal burghs, or boroughs, in Scotland return among them all only fifteen deputies.

The parliament.

The two houses above noticed, that of the Lords, and that of the Commons, compose what in a vague signification of the word is understood by the parliament; but, in a strict, legal sense, it cannot be a parliament without the King, who constitutes one of the three branches of the legislature. In the parliament thus composed of King, Lords, and Commons, is vested that despotic uncontrollable power, which ought to reside somewhere in a state for the enactment of coercive laws and the enforcement of order.

In the king alone resides the power of convoking, proroguing, and dissolving the two Houses of Parliament,



Parliament, which can neither assemble without his order nor even exist without his permission. When the parliament is prorogued, it is only interrupted in its function for a time, with a supposition that it is to re-assemble and to resume its deliberations at the end of the appointed period; but when it is dissolved it ceases to exist, and cannot again assemble without a new election for members of the House of Commons, and representatives of the Scottish Peerage. In either case an end is put to the session, and whatever business has been begun without being completed is entirely lost, so that if ever it be again brought into debate, it must be resumed from the beginning, as if it had never been before mentioned; whereas, by an adjournment, which is always in the power of either House with respect to itself only, a business is merely suspended, and may be resumed in whatever stage it had acquired when it was interrupted.

Formerly, from the reign of William the Third, the parliament was triennial, or became dissolved of course, without any interference of the king, every third year; but, by its own despotic act in the reign of George the First, in the year 1716, it rendered itself septennial, prolonging the ordinary period of its duration to seven years. A dissolution of the parliament is also a consequence of the death of the king; but not immediately, for, to prevent confusion, the law is, that the parliament, which subsists at the death of the monarch, shall continue six months after his decease. unless it be sooner prorogued or dissolved by his successor.

To

To lay an obligation on the regal power with respect to the assembling of parliaments, some solemn Conventions have been made, by which are understood laws made to bind such powers in a state as have no superior power, by which they can be legally compelled to the execution of them. By these Conventions, or laws without enforcements, the king is to assemble a parliament at least once in three years: the writs for assembling it are to be issued at least forty days before its meeting: and a prorogation, though it may be prolonged, cannot be shortened, unless a rebellion has commenced, or imminent danger of a foreign invasion has spread an alarm; and even in that case fourteen days notice has been decreed necessary.

No person under the age of twenty-one years can legally be a member of either house. Bills, or proposals of laws, respecting taxation, or the granting of revenues to the king, can originate only in the House of Commons, nor is it permitted to the Lords to make the least alterations in such bills. Proposals of laws of any other kind may originate indifferently in either House. In each of the Houses a plurality of suffrages is decisive, but the resolution of one is totally ineffectual without the approbation of the other House; and the joint resolutions of both are equally ineffectual without the royal assent, or approbation of the King: so that to the completion of a law the concurrence of all the three parts of the legislature is necessary; each House having a negative on the resolutions of the other, and the King a negative on the resolutions

of both. The assent of the King, by which he gives the final confirmations to the joint resolutions of the two Houses, whereby these resolutions become acts of parliament, is expressed in the Norman dialect of the French, a custom which arose from the conquest of England by the Normans, and which ought to be considered by the English as a solemn memento of the slavish subjugation of their ancestors by a foreign force.

As the King is on one hand possessed of so large The King a share of the legislative authority, so on the other he is vested with the whole executive power, and in a considerable degree also, but not entirely, of the judicial. He is the supreme magistrate of the realm, and all officers of justice are his substitutes. He has the prerogative of pardoning offenders, or of remitting the punishments to which they are sentenced; but this prerogative is restricted by some very proper limitations not necessary to be here particularized. It is a fundamental maxim in the constitution, that the King can do no wrong, that is, that he cannot be called to account for his actions by any court whatever in his dominions, and that his person is sacred and inviolable: but his ministers, without whose agency he can execute no measures detrimental to his people, are liable to impeachment, and, if sentenced to punishment, are incapable of receiving any benefit by the King's pardon. The prosecutors are in this case a deputation from the House of Commons, and the judges are the Lords assembled in Parliament.

As



As the fountain of honor, the King confers all titles of nobility and other dignities of the state. As head of the church, he disposes of all dignities of the hierarchy, with many inferior ecclesiastical benefices, and can convene and dissolve at pleasure the convocation, or general assembly of the clergy; but he is not empowered to make any change in the religion of the nation, to call any man to account for his religious opinions, to profess the Roman Catholic Religion himself, nor to marry any woman of that persuasion. As the superintendent of commerce, he can regulate weights and measures; has alone the privilege of coining money, and of giving currency to pieces of foreign coinage by comparison with the standard of British money, which standard he has not authority to alter.

As generalissimo of the realm, the King has the absolute command of all the marine and land forces; but with respect to the latter his prerogative is thus far limited, that he is not allowed, without consent of parliament, to keep a standing army, though his command over it, when it is once embodied, is equally absolute as that over the fleet. The army is understood to be permitted only from year to year, and liable to be disbanded at the end of any year by the dissent of either House of Parliament, particularly as the revenues, by which it is supported, are granted only for one year. As the representative of his people with respect to foreign states, and the depositary of all the power and collective majesty of the nation, he has the absolute authority of making war and peace, alliances and treaties

ties of every kind; but as he can impose no taxes, and must depend on the consent of parliament for the revenues necessary to support a war, his power is in this respect considered as virtually, though not apparently limited, and has been compared to a great ship completely equipped, which may at pleasure be set afloat, or left aground, by the money granted or withheld by parliament\*. This privilege of bestowing or withholding subsidies, is so efficacious an engine in the hands of the great National Assembly, that lest the King should become too much a dependent, or be forced by necessity into desperate measures, it has voluntarily in some measure limited its own power, by making it a custom to confer on the King, at his accession to the throne, such a revenue for life as is sufficient to support his household with the dignity of a great monarch, but inadequate to the execution of any great enterprize.

The British monarch is stiled King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith. The second of these titles was first assumed by Edward the Third, from a mistaken or mistated birth-right, and afterward prosecuted with more flattering hopes, though happily without final success, by Henry the Fifth. That of defender of the faith, which was conferred by the Pope on Henry the Eighth, on account of a book written by that monarch against the doctrines of Luther, must at present be understood in a sense somewhat different

\* De Lolme's Constitution of England.

from its original signification, since the British monarchs have been rather defenders of the Protestant than the Roman Catholic faith after the time of Henry. The succession to the throne is hereditary both in the male and female line, with preference to the former, but is subject to be regulated occasionally by parliament as the safety of the nation may require. Besides that any person who is a Roman Catholic, or married to one of that communion, is by act of parliament incapable of succeeding to the throne, or of reigning in Britain. "The heir apparent to the crown is usually made Prince of Wales and Earl of Chester by special creation and investiture; but, being the King's eldest son, he is by inheritance Duke of Cornwall without any new creation †." The eldest daughter is stiled the Princess Royal. The rest of the royal children are little farther distinguished than by a precedence before all peers and public officers of every denomination.

General  
constitution.

The British constitution founded, as we may observe, on the broad basis of the people, and narrowing as it ascends by intermediate orders to the monarch, has been compared to a pyramid ‡, and may perhaps be better compared to a cone, which, from a wide and firm base, diminishes gradually upward and terminates in a point. The monarch, who is the most exalted object in this composite system, and is placed, as it were, at the summit of

† Blackstone, Book 1. c. 4.

‡ Blackstone, Book 1. c. 2.

affairs,



affairs, is armed with a vast coercive force, sufficient to consolidate the whole mass of government, to diffuse energy throughout the system, and to enforce the observance of that order which is essentially necessary for the security and happiness of a nation. Yet so firm are the barriers supposed to be, which are fixed in the constitution for the protection of liberty against the immense pressure of the sovereign sway, that beneath all the blaze of regal majesty, and those formidable powers which invest the throne, the subjects enjoy an almost unequalled security, effectually guarded, individually at least, as is supposed, but less, doubtless, in a collective sense, against monarchical oppression.

“ No where else in the world such harmony subsists between the several ranks of citizens as in England. This harmony is the foundation, the firm foundation, on which the proud superstructure of the British constitution rests. Ranks vary as much, or perhaps more than elsewhere, but no rank has that gigantic pre-eminence which can enable it to trample on its next inferior. In the scale of subordination the distance from top to bottom is great; but the gradation is scarcely perceptible, and the connexion intimate. Each rank is interested in the support of its next superior, for none are excluded from the hope of rising; and of all the various ranks the highest is the most interested in the support of all. We cannot consider without wonder, that an order of things, apparently the most natural, never subsisted in any country but our own. The benefit of that singular amalgamation  
of

of various ranks among the people, which prevails in England, has, I think, never been duly noticed §."

Laws.

Concerning the laws of this kingdom it may be observed, that what is particularly called the Civil Law, used in the ancient Roman empire, and since adopted by most modern nations of Europe, has never gained admittance into Britain, the laws of which are distinguished into two kinds, the written and unwritten. The former, more frequently called the Statute Law, consists of statutes expressly enacted by the legislature, more commonly known by the name of Acts of Parliament. The latter, called also the Common Law, has the title of Unwritten, because, though it is found in books and records, it owes not its sanction to any express declaration of the legislature, but merely to immemorial custom, for the origin of which no written authority is known. To this class belong certain local customs, which, though different from the general usage or law of the kingdom, have the force of laws in their respective territories. For instance, though the general custom is, that the landed property of the father devolves at his death to the eldest son, yet in some parts, as in Kent, another mode of inheritance called Gavelkind prevails, by which the property is equally divided among all the sons; and in several boroughs a

§ Mitford's Greece, vol. ii. p. 626—628. Dublin, 1791.  
Mostly copied from Lettre au Roi par Monsieur de Calonne.

mode called Borough-English takes place, by which the youngest, instead of the eldest son, is heir ¶.

We are also to observe that, though since the union, the laws of Scotland, as well as those of England, may be occasionally changed by the British Parliament \*, yet little alteration has been hitherto made in the Scottish laws; so that they still continue different from those of England; yet they bear to them a striking similarity which is somewhat surprising, when we consider that these two parts of the island were, till lately, separate kingdoms with entirely distinct legislatures.

It ought, perhaps, not to be omitted that, though the civil law of the old Roman empire, and also the canon law framed by popes and ecclesiastical councils, have no force nor authority in this kingdom, with respect to any intrinsic obligation, and are no more binding in Britain than the British laws are in Rome; yet, as far as these laws, on account of some peculiar propriety, have in some particular cases, and in some particular courts, been introduced and allowed by the British laws, so far they

¶ This custom, which prevails among the Hottentots, and other pastoral nations, is judiciously supposed by Blackstone, to have been originally founded in this circumstance, that in such nations the elder sons commonly provide for themselves in their father's life, and the youngest being the only one left with the father, and unprovided, naturally becomes his heir.

\* In the sixteenth article of the union it is stipulated that, though laws relating to public policy are alterable at the discretion of parliament; yet those which relate to private right are not to be altered, except for the evident utility of the people of Scotland.

are



are obligatory, but “no farther; their authority being wholly founded on that permission and adoption †”

The laws are more equitable in Britain, and more equitably executed than in any other country in Europe; one chief cause of which is, that those who have the framing of the laws, being totally excluded from having any share in the execution of them, are as much exposed to the rigor of the laws as any other people. For the same reason punishments are extremely mild; amounting in general, for the greatest crimes, to little more than the simple privation of life. But here a circumstance of injustice occurs, which disgraces the penal institutions, that women are doomed to be burned alive for every species of treason, while males in some cases which come under that denomination are only hanged. This, I confess, is commonly mitigated very much by a tacit practice in the execution; the unhappy female being mostly deprived of sensation by strangling, before her body is seized by the flames; yet to condemn, in equal degrees of guilt, the softer and more timid sex to the more tremendous punishment, is certainly a very inequitable distinction, and is doubtless a shameful remnant of ancient barbarism still suffered to subsist in one of the most enlightened nations on earth. The indecency of exposing the dead body of a woman is alledged as a reason for this distinction; but this can be admitted only, if at all, where embowel-

† Blackstone Introduction, Sect. 1.

ling and quartering are ordained for the opposite sex, not where simple hanging is decreed. Besides, is burning the only mode by which this indecency can be avoided? The fact is that, as in all barbarous nations the fair sex are treated with brutal contempt and cruelty, and that in proportion to the degree of barbarism, this custom is derived from the brutality of the ancient savage inhabitants of this island.

For the carrying of the laws into execution, various magistrates and officers of justice are appointed to act under the supreme magistrate the Monarch. The chief magistrate of each county is the Sheriff, who, except in the county of Westmoreland where the office is hereditary, is by custom, if not by law, an annual officer, nominated by the King out of three persons chosen and proposed to him by an assembly of twelve judges of the courts of King's-Bench, Common-Pleas, and Exchequer. Most of the offices of this magistrate are performed by his substitute, or Sub-sheriff, an officer nominated by him, and consequently annual also. He has also under him jailors for the keeping of prisons, and bailiffs for the execution of meaner offices. For the administration of justice in some small cases, and the suppression of violence in its rise, a number of magistrates act in each county under the title of Justices of the Peace, commissioned by the King, and liable by the same authority to be deprived of their honorable, in general no way lucrative, office; but otherwise holding their places for life or during their own pleasure. To perform

perform more humble functions in the conservation of the peace, high constables are appointed, one in each hundred, or division of a county; and petty constables, one in each town and parish; chosen annually at an assembly of the inhabitants of the hundred called a Court-Leet, or, in failure thereof, by the justices of the peace who hold a court of Quarter-Sessions.

The judicial department, though emanating from the monarch as the distributor of justice, is distinct and separate from the executive, being committed to a peculiar body of men, nominated indeed by the regal power, but not removeable by the same authority. The judges of the various courts of the realm are appointed by the King, but that they may be less controlled by court influence, and enabled to act with impartiality, it is provided that, though they may be raised from lower to higher and more lucrative places by the Monarch, they cannot be deprived of their places or salaries, unless, in consequence of misbehaviour, an address be made for that purpose by both Houses of Parliament to the King.

Juries.

The judges are obliged in the discharge of their functions to adhere with the most scrupulous precision to the laws, and, in general, are not permitted to decide on the matter of fact, but only on the matter of law. The former is commonly left to the judgment of twelve men of the county, called a Jury, who are to be confined without food, drink, fire, and candle, unless a permission be given expressly by the judge, until they agree in a unanimous



mous decision. The persons who are to compose the jury are nominated, except in some particular cases, by the sheriff, but liable to be rejected on proper causes assigned by the parties litigant, until twelve unobjectionable men can be found. Most civil causes are tried by juries, and all those which are of a criminal nature; except some cases in which the lords assembled in parliament are the judges, as when the person accused is a peer of the realm; for the principle is, that no man can be tried otherwise than by his equals.

All trials are held in public, and every indulgence consistent with justice is allowed to the person accused. He cannot even be brought to the humiliating situation of answering to the accusation of any capital crime, unless cause for the same be previously found by twelve or more of his fellow-subjects, called the Grand Jury. Of the persons proposed to form the Petty Jury for his trial, he can, without assigning any reason, reject twenty in cases of felony, and thirty-five in cases of treason, and after that any other number against whom he can shew legal objections.

This mode of trial, which provides that no man is to be affected with detriment in his property or person, otherwise than by the unanimous decision of twelve unobjectionable men, his equals and neighbours, is the firmest rampart of the liberty of the British nation, and above all things demonstrates the democratic principles of its constitution. Whatever inroads have been made on this most sacred bulwark, by introducing new and arbitrary

modes of trial through justices of the peace, commissioners of the revenue, and courts of conscience, “are fundamentally opposite to the spirit of the constitution; and, though begun in trifles, the precedent may gradually increase and spread, to the utter disuse of juries in questions of the most momentous concern \*” In Scotland the use of juries, except in the Court of Exchequer, has long been discontinued in civil causes†; nor is it so general as in England in other causes; nor is unanimity required in the jurors, a bare majority being sufficient to make a decision.

Courts of  
justice.

For the distribution of justice throughout the nation a variety of courts, high and subordinate, have been established. The Parliament itself seems to have sometimes become a court of law, when, by its despotic power, it formed bills of Attainder against particular persons, against whom legal proof was wanting, and who could not be brought to punishment by the laws before in existence; but these bills were in reality new laws, and not an execution of those which had been already established. The House of Peers is a high court of justice, not only for appeals in civil causes, but also for the trial of any of their own body for any crime, and for that of Commoners impeached of high crimes and misdemeanors by the House of Commons. The four courts, that of Common-Pleas, that of King's-Bench, that of Exchequer, and the High Court of

\* Blackstone, Book 4. Chap. 27.

† Henry, vol. ii. p. 338.

Chancery,

Chancery, held in the capital in Westminster-Hall, though not all of them confined by law to that station, extend their influence, with some exceptions, particularly with respect to Wales, over all South-Britain, but not to Scotland, which has particular courts of its own, as the College of Justice, or Court of the Lords of Session; the Justice Court, or that of the Justiciary, which has a supreme jurisdiction in criminal matters; and a Court of Exchequer like that of South-Britain. A peculiar convention takes place in Scotland, that of the Deputies of Royal Burghs, who meet annually at Edinburgh for the regulation of matters which concern commerce.

Itinerant judges are sent twice a year to administer justice in the several counties, two to each of the six circuits into which England is divided, and hold what are called Courts of Assize successively in the chief town of each county. Each county has also a court, in which the sheriff is president, and courts of Quarter-Sessions held four times a year by Justices of the Peace. Even the divisions of the counties have their particular courts, as those of the Hundreds and Manors. Beside these courts of local jurisdiction, several others are not only local, but singular, each differing in its mode from the rest. Those of Cheshire, Lancashire, and Durham, differ a little from the general form; these counties having been formerly subject to the royal rights of the Earl of Chester, the Duke of Lancaster, and the Bishop of Durham, respectively, in like manner as the kingdom in general is subject



to the royal rights of the King; and having been denominated Counties Palatine from the word Palatium or Palace, on account of the regal stile formerly maintained in them by their immediate chiefs. The Isle of Ely, though not termed a County Palatine, but a Royal Franchise, is in a like predicament with respect to the Bishop of Ely.

Municipalities.

Towns have severally their municipal governments for the regulation of their internal concerns, differing one from another in the number, names, ranks, or jurisdiction of their magistrates, or in some other circumstance. Of these some are cities, some are boroughs, and some of neither denomination, but simply towns. By a city in Britain, in the strict political sense of the term, is now understood a town enjoying the privilege of incorporation, or a legal municipal constitution within itself, which either is, or has been the see of a Bishop. A borough signifies a town, whether incorporated or not, which sends burgesses to parliament. Some towns are distinguished with the privilege of being counties corporate, or counties within themselves, under their own sheriffs and other magistrates, so that no officer of the territorial county in which any of them is situate, has jurisdiction within its precincts.

King's-councils.

As the supreme director of the state in its internal government and external operations, the King requires the advice and ministry of many persons. Beside the great officers of state, the Lord Treasurer, Lord Chamberlain, the Principal Secretaries of State, and others, nominated and displaced

ed by the will of the sovereign, he has for his assistance in deliberation a Privy Council modelled entirely by his authority, the members of which are admitted and dismissed at his pleasure, but are authorized to hold their seats six months after his decease, unless deprived in that interval by his successor. In matters of law the judges of the courts of justice form his council. The peers of the realm, not only in their collective capacity, but even individually, are understood to have a right to demand an audience of the King, and to lay before him with decency and respect such matters as they may judge to be of importance to the public weal. Even the counties and municipalities of the kingdom may, with the concurrence of their magistrates, give advice, by petitions or remonstrances presented to the monarch.

The British constitution, beautiful in theory, and Defects. even in practice excellent, when put in comparison with other monarchies, is yet supposed to have, more especially in the latter consideration, some lamentable defects, which by a gradual sap are operating its ruin. These I shall have occasion to unfold at large in another work: here, since the plan of this precludes all such developement, I can no more than glance a very feeble hint.

The House of Lords ought to give, and, if it were properly modelled into a senate of a determinate number, doubtless would give a happy stability to the constitution, by repelling, with the dignity and immoveable firmness of a great and august assembly of hereditary legislators, the slow and silent,  
but

but ultimately deleterious incroachments of the crown on one side, and the loud and giddy violence of popular innovation on the other. But, in its present form it is said to be so governed by court influence as to be subservient to the will of the monarch, who not only by lucrative places and pensions in his donation, and the fascinating delusions of court favor, attracts to his interest a majority of the House, but also can at any time in case of emergency create any number of new nobles, to give preponderance to his party. The same influence is exerted with the same effect in the House of Commons, the members of which are generally much inferior to the nobles in fortune, and consequently more easily drawn by the bait of emolument; besides that a great majority of them are actually nominated, whatever are the forms of election, more or less indirectly by peers, great commoners, and the crown; so that of the five hundred and fifty-eight members of which this House consists, only two hundred and four are reported to be elected by the free choice of the people †. Some also complain that members fit for the

† See Mr. Grey's petition presented May 6, 1793, which states that seventy-four peers nominate ninety members, and influence the election (which is the same thing in fact) of eighty. Thus a hundred and seventy members are stated to be the representatives of peers. In like manner a hundred and thirty-nine are said to be appointed by rich commoners, and the forty-five Scottish members by the king's ministers. The King, some are afraid, may in time nominate the majority of the House by his increasing influence, as he already nominates directly to the peerage; and



the purpose are employed, who, steeling their breasts against all sense of shame, perplex the debates with sophistick declamation, conclusions from false premisses, assertions without veracity, and words without meaning, to give some kind of countenance, contrary to the clearest light of reason, to the vote of the majority, which is always previously secured by the minister.

Thus what are understood to be the aristocratic and democratic powers in the constitution, each of which is in theory supposed to counteract singly the joint forces of the other and the monarchy, are reported to be found in practice to avail but little against the vast preponderance of the last, which is said to threaten to establish in no distant time an absolute incontrollable sway, under which, however, the forms, but the forms only, of a free constitution may long continue. For such a state of things, the wide spreading contamination of morals, under a system of corruption so extensive and openly avowed, has long operated, it may be feared, with baleful success, to prepare the minds of the Britons. From the security of equal laws, protecting individual persons and property, the English exert an astonishing industry beneath the galling burdens of enormous taxation, and in an interval of peace make vast accumulations of national wealth. But it is complained that when the caprice, vain ambi-

and then, as in the ancient Roman empire, "the principles of a free constitution are irrecoverably lost when the legislative power is appointed by the executive." GIBBON.

tion,

tion, or other sinister views of a court call for war, the sponge is applied, the defenceless people are collectively fleeced, and the minister § with a desperate hand and unfeeling heart pours out millions after millions of the public money in unproductive subsidies and useless enterprizes, by which many thousands of honest industrious people are reduced to misery, and none receive benefit except a vermin of contractors, paymasters, stock-jobbers, and others in the employment of ministry, who thrive in proportion to the calamity and decline of the nation.

Some also complain that, as we naturally conclude oppression to be attended with discontent, the people are not intrusted with their own defence, but this is committed to a mercenary army, too weak to repel any vigorous invasion from abroad, but sufficient for the enforcement of ministerial

§ "It is seldom or never, says a certain writer, that an Englishman unites the character of a minister with that of a patriot. The prodigious power, and the facility with which they are enabled to amass astonishing riches, generally make the ministers forget those principles, which by giving them popularity raised them to eminence. Of all the statesmen whom England has produced, no one was ever so zealous a patriot as the immortal Chatham, who joined to extraordinary talents the purest attachment to his country." His administration was too good to be of long continuance. He thought it "impossible to be at the same time the favorite of the sovereign and the friend of the people.—When his corpse was laid in the grave, the Marquis of Lansdowne exclaimed, The sun of England is now set for ever." D'Archenholz, *Picture of England*, Dublin 1791, p. 123. A new sun was hoped to have arisen when his son Mr. Pitt came into administration, \*\*\*\*\*

subjection

subjection at home: that mean time the royal influence augments with the debts and taxes of the nation by multiplying the creditors of the crown, officers of the revenue, and other partizans, whose employments, like cancerous humors, corrode the vitals of the state: that this influence, pervading every the most secret recess of the nation, stifles even the voice of complaint, and, by procuring addresses to the crown directly contrary to the sense of the people, frustrates the right of stating their grievances in petitions and remonstrances; and that it threatens also to sap the last retrenchment of retiring liberty, the Trial by Jury; for, it is said, that an influenced sheriff may, in spite of all objections from the prisoner, contrive that all the jurors may be influenced persons ||.

The vastness of the perpetually encreasing revenue Revenue, of the King is at once the cause and the effect of his

|| The only complete proof, it is said, which a king of Great-Britain could give of his wisdom and goodness, would be to restore purity and give stability to that constitution, which with all its defects has justly been the admiration of Europe, but which, without the concurrence of the monarch with the honest wishes of his subjects, must continue to decline and verge to its ruin. The late Prince of Wales of adorable memory was prevented by death from this glorious design. A system of genuine liberty is not less salutary to the prince than the peasant. This in the day of prosperity will not be admitted by the great; but the late Queen of Denmark, of the blood royal of Britain, when seized by the base unprincipled minions of an arbitrary court, exclaimed in the bitterness of despair—"why am I not in my own dear country, where my trial would have been conducted publicly, and by the most noble judges!"

prepon-



preponderant influence. It comes under two denominations, ordinary and extraordinary. The former is such as has subsisted by immemorial usage in possession of the crown, "or else has been granted by parliament, by way of purchase or exchange, for such of the King's inherent hereditary revenues as were found inconvenient to the subject\*." Of the ordinary revenue, or hereditary property of the King, no less than eighteen branches are enumerated, most of them at present almost obsolete, alienated, or quite inconsiderable. One of the principal was the rents of the demesne lands of the crown, which by a series of mismanagement are reduced to a trifle. Another arose from the royal prerogative of purveyance and pre-emption, by which the subjects were obliged to furnish the court with provisions and other necessaries on its own terms. Instead of this oppressive mode of supply, which was formally abolished in the reign of Charles the Second, and had before become obsolete, a hereditary excise of fifteen pence a barrel on beer and ale sold, and a proportional sum on certain other liquors, was substituted by way of commutation.

The extraordinary revenues, which at present constitute almost the whole of the royal income, consist of what are called aids, subsidies, or supplies, granted by the House of Commons, and raised by taxes imposed on houses, lands, articles of industry and luxury, of export and import. Of these taxes some are annual, others perpetual. The

\* Blackstone, book 1. chap. 8.

annual are commonly those which are imposed on land and malt. The land tax is, by the ninth article of the union, to be levied in such proportion from the two great divisions of the island, that when South-Britain pays almost two millions, or exactly 1,997,763 pounds, eight shillings, and four pence halfpeny, Scotland must pay forty-eight thousand pounds; and is rated in the same ratio for any greater or less assessment. The chief of the perpetual taxes are the customs and the excise duties. The former are tolls or tariffs payable for merchandize exported and imported. The latter are inland impositions, "paid sometimes on the consumption of the commodity, or frequently upon the retail sale, which is the last stage before the consumption."

The whole of the King's revenue, ordinary and extraordinary, amounts to about eighteen millions of pounds annually, clear of the expences of management and collection, which probably, including douceurs, fall little short of two millions more. If to this we should add between two and three millions levied for the support of the poor, and other taxes which I forbear to mention, we must be astonished at the magnitude of the burden and the ability of the nation to bear it. Of the eighteen millions of taxes, nine hundred thousand pounds are appropriated to the private revenue of the King, or his civil list, for the support of the various expences of his household; the salaries of his officers of state, judges, and servants; the appointments for ambassadors,

fadors, expenditures for secret service, and a variety of other matters.

National  
debt.

Above ten millions of the money arising annually from the perpetual taxes are appropriated to pay the interest, and the expences of management, of the national debt, which, chiefly by continental wars, in which the British nation neither had any concern, (nor were they, since the reign of Queen Anne, of any real advantage to the balance of power their pretended object), has accumulated to the enormous amount of above two hundred and seventy-six millions †. As funds for the secure payment of the interest of this prodigious imaginary sum, due by the government of Britain, in which the whole amount of the circulating cash, or metal money, has been supposed to be no more than about thirty millions ‡, certain revenues are mortgaged; whence

† As while I write, the nation is engaged in a most expensive war, the statement may probably be found too low by the reader. In the reign of William the Third the system of funding was first adopted in Britain. The national debt amounted in the year 1697 to 10,876,000 pounds; in the year 1727, at the accession of George the Second, to 50,261,207; in 1748 to 80,000,000; in 1763, the third year of George the Third's reign, to 148,000,000. We see to what it has since arisen. Above a thousand millions in the present century have been expended in useless wars by the British nation. What immense benefits might have been derived from the thousandth part of the money applied to the improvement of the country at home! The system of funding is beyond a doubt ultimately ruinous, but, "if a nation be to sink in some future age, every minister hopes it may still keep afloat in his own." Ferguson on Civil Society.

‡ Some state it at eighteen, others at forty millions; but the great mass of currency is in paper.

this



this species of property is called the Funds, and these formerly were distinguished by many particular appropriations, but are now mostly united into the three capital stocks of the aggregate fund, the general fund, and the South-Sea fund, the last of which originally belonged to a body of traders called the South-Sea Company. These interests, funds, or stocks, which, happily for the nation belong mostly to British subjects, are transferable, like any other species of property, from man to man; and a traffic in them is called stock-jobbing. To diminish the national debt, or rather to retard its increase, a part of the revenue called the sinking fund, amounting of late years to a million annually, has been a long time applied §.

Beside a militia of near forty thousand men in <sup>Forces.</sup> South-Britain, liable to be summoned by the King on great emergencies, and under his absolute command, about forty thousand of a standing army are maintained in general in times of peace, of whom near eighteen thousand are sometimes stationed in Britain, ten or twelve thousand in Ireland, or more sometimes, and five or six thousand in the fortrefs of Gibraltar. What number may be supported in times of war is uncertain. In the war undertaken for the reduction of the revolted British colonies of North-America, the land forces of the crown, including German mercenaries, are said to have consisted of a hundred and thirty-five thousand men;

§ This fund is quite useless. To pay one million and borrow ten, is the same thing as to pay nothing and borrow nine.

and

and a still greater number were supported in the year 1760 in a war against France. The numerous armies maintained in the Indian territories, both in war and peace, by the East India Company, will be noticed in the account of Hindostan.

The glory and strength of Britain is its navy, the greatest and most formidable ever known. This has consisted, in times of hostility, of more than a hundred and ten great vessels, or ships of the line, each carrying from above fifty cannons to above a hundred, and from about five hundred to a thousand men and upward, sailors and soldiers; beside near two hundred smaller ships bearing from about fifty to ten or twelve cannons or great guns. This vast navy in the zenith of its greatness carried above twenty thousand cannons, and above a hundred and ten thousand combatants, seamen and marine soldiers; yet might it have been rendered much more formidable, if the vast sums expended fruitlessly in German wars had been applied to this the real bulwark of the island. In time of peace a small part only of this vast fleet is employed, and not more than eighteen thousand seamen, including between three and four thousand marines.

Foreign  
possession-  
sions.

By means of her navy, in which the main force of Britain, as an insular state, must naturally consist, many foreign possessions have been acquired and retained. The islands of Jersey, Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark, on the coast of France, which were formerly an appendage of the Dutchy of Normandy, and as such became together with that Dutchy a part of the dominions of the crown of England,

England, have still remained with that crown after the incorporation of Normandy with France. Britain possesses the fortress of Gibraltar on the coasts of Spain; several small forts on the western coast of Africa, and the rock of Saint Helena near the middle of the Atlantic, commonly reputed an African island; territories of great extent, population, and riches, in the vast country of Hindostan under the presidencies of Bengall, Madrafs, and Bombay; some small forts and factories in the islands of the Indian ocean, particularly on the western coast of Sumatra; in America the continental territories of Canada and Nova Scotia, with some factories on the torpid shores of Hudson's-Bay; and, in the Atlantic in the vicinity of the New-Continent, the islands of Newfoundland, Cape-Breton, Saint John, the Bermudas, the Bahamas, Jamaica, Barbadoes, Saint Christophers, Antigua, Montserrat, Nevis, Granada, Barbuda, Dominica, Saint Vincent, and Anguilla ||.

As

|| Foreign possessions are now known to a certainty by the informed, reflecting, and unprejudiced few, to be attended with loss instead of gain to a nation. Nothing but sophistry is advanced in their favor by the interested or ignorant, while against them militate irrefragable arguments, which cannot have room here. I shall only observe that it must be evident to common sense, that the expence of defending foreign possessions, which pay not in proportion for the defence of the mother country, renders them the causes of poverty and weakness rather than of riches and strength; and that, while vast tracts at home are waste and unimproved, it is absurd to export the capital of the nation to cultivate distant and precarious lands. The loss of the  
British



**Religion.** As in every country government and religion have a mutual influence, so in Britain, where narrow bigotted religious principles would be incongruous with the admirable system of genuine political freedom enjoyed by its inhabitants, we find in the ecclesiastical state of things a high degree of liberality somewhat tempered by coercion, and in the two great divisions of the united kingdom a still greater difference in spiritual than in civil institutions.

Though the precise time is not known, Christianity was certainly planted at an early period in Britain, and became the established mode of worship, at least in South-Britain, long before the dereliction of the country by the Romans. The invading Saxons were Pagans, and oppressed Christianity as far as they extended their dominion; but they were afterwards converted by Missioners from Rome, when the evangelic doctrines were become more corrupt than they had been at their first introduction. The Danes, the next invaders, again imported Paganism, and though these also were by degrees converted, yet many Pagans remained in Britain

British colonies of North-America to the British government has been the cause of real and great profit to the British nation; a paradox to the ignorant; to lose "Thirteen provinces, and to gain by that loss an increase of wealth, felicity, and power! When will the obvious conclusions to be drawn from that prodigious event be adopted? that all transmarine, or distant dominions are sources of weakness, and that to renounce them would be wisdom." *Younge's Tour in France*, vol. i. p. 376. Dublin, 1793.

so late, if not later, as the tenth century\*. The Norman conquest confirmed the supremacy of the Pope over the English church. This claim of the Roman Pontiff was unknown to the ancient British Christians, and though the Saxons, having been converted from that source, acknowledged a primacy in the Roman see, they had little idea of any title in it to dominion or irrefragable authority. But William the conqueror, habituated to more exalted notions of Papal eminence, and induced partly by policy, subjected the church to the spiritual authority of his holiness, and that subjection was completed in the base reign of King John.

No country of Europe was more ignominiously intralld in its spiritual government by the Roman see than England, 'till Henry the Eighth an unfeeling tyrant burst the bonds. At first a violent partizan of the Pontifical pretensions, and even a Polemical writer against the doctrines of Luther, he afterwards, because his Holiness refused him a divorce from his first wife, disclaimed the supremacy of the sovereign Pontiff, and with the concurrence of his parliament, declared himself head of the English church: Yet, while he renounced the successor of Saint Peter, he was extremely tenacious of all the corruptions which had been introduced into Christianity by the sovereign prelates; so that, though he consigned to the hangman those who still admitted the Roman supremacy, he also committed alive to the flames those who presumed to receive the doctrines of the reformation.

\* Henry, vol. ii. p. 168.

In the reign of Edward the Sixth, who succeeded Henry, the reformed religion obtained the sanction of government, though not as yet embraced by the general mass of the people. Mary, the next sovereign, an ignorant narrow-minded furious bigot, restored the Romish worship, and burned alive some hundreds of men, women, and even children for a nonconformity with her mode of belief. These horrible cruelties excited in the English so great a detestation against a religion which sanctioned such atrocities, that after the death of this female demon, a vast majority of them declared themselves Protestants in the following reign of the great Elizabeth, in the year 1559, when that denomination of religion was established by government, which has remained without any material alteration to the present day.

Scotland, which probably had received the light of the gospel as soon, or nearly as soon, as South-Britain, was later and less complete, though sufficiently subjected also, in its submission to the spiritual yoke of Rome. The Scottish church, however, remained under the Roman supremacy till the commencement of the reign of the charming, but unfortunate Mary Stuart, commonly called Queen of Scots, when the reformation was propagated with such violent zeal, a zeal heightened by persecution, that it bore all down with the force of a deluge, and swept away even the vestiges of Popery. Calvinism was then established in 1560. Episcopacy in the following century was forced on the Scots by the Stuart princes, particularly by

3

Charles



Charles the Second and James the Second, who exercised a horrible tyranny over this unfortunate people: but, when Britain was relieved by the invasion of the Prince of Orange, the Scottish parliament, in 1690, with the ratification of William, reinstated Calvinism, which still continues the established religion.

Thus, with a general toleration of all persuasions, and a consequent great variety of professions, <sup>English church.</sup> two sects of the Protestant, or reformed, religion are separately established in the two great divisions of this island; the one in South-Britain and the isles on its coasts; the other in North-Britain, politically including the Hebrides, Orkneys, and Isles of Shetland. That which is established in South-Britain is called the religion of the Church of England. This is a species of Lutheranism, differing from that of Germany in its liturgy and some other points; particularly in this, that it has preserved much more of the dignity and jurisdiction of the Roman Catholic hierarchy in its constitution; and that it admits not consubstantiation †, but considers the elements of Bread and wine, received in the Eucharist, as only symbols of the body and blood of Christ, commemorative of his sacrifice and death.

The hierarchy of the Church of England consists of the two archbishops of Canterbury and York, and twenty-four bishops. The bishops of Carlisle, Chester, and Durham, are suffragans to the arch-

† For consubstantiation see before, vol. ii. p. 297.

bishop of York; all the rest to the archbishop of Canterbury, who is primate of all England. Suffragan to York is also a twenty-seventh prelate, the bishop of Man, who is not accounted a member of the hierarchy, as not having a vote in the House of Lords. The archbishop of Canterbury, who is head of the hierarchy, is also accounted the first lord in Britain after the princes of the blood royal. After the archbishop of York, who is the second member of the hierarchy, the bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester, have precedence of all prelates. The rest take their rank according to seniority with respect to their consecration. Bishops are considered as barons of the realm, and take place next after viscounts; but the bishop of Durham is Count Palatine of the county of Durham, and is, in right of his fee, Earl of Sadberg.

The king, as head of the church, "convenes, prorogues, restrains, regulates, and dissolves all ecclesiastical synods or convocations. The convocation, or ecclesiastical synod, in England differs considerably in its constitution from the synods of other Christian kingdoms; those consisting wholly of bishops; whereas here the convocation is the miniature of a parliament, wherein the archbishop presides with regal state; the upper house of bishops represents the House of Lords; and the lower house, composed of the representatives of the several dioceses at large, and of each particular chapter therein, resembles the House of Commons with its knights of the shire and burgesses †." These assem-

† Blackstone, Book i. c. 7.

blies however have been long discontinued, for they have not been permitted to sit and transact business since the year 1717.

The number of parishes in South-Britain is above nine thousand five hundred, of which near three thousand seven hundred are impropriated; that is, their tithes and glebes belong not to ecclesiastics, but to laymen, who pay trifling salaries to curates for the performance of the duties. The parishes vary greatly in extent and revenue. The largest rectory is said to be that of Winwick in Lancashire, worth above two thousand five hundred pounds annually. Great numbers are small; some not exceeding the yearly value of thirty pounds. In general, the northern parishes are much more extensive than the southern.

The clergy of the church of England, consisting, according to their dignities or benefices, of Deans, Prebendaries, Archdeacons, Rural Deans, Rectors, Vicars, and Curates, amount to about twelve thousand in number, and vary not a little in the temporal emoluments of their spiritual functions; some curates of parishes not having above twenty pounds a year for very laborious duties, and some in Wales not above ten. How far the inculeation of the sublime doctrines and pure morality of the Christian religion is to be promoted by the degraded and miserable condition of its ministers, in a country in which the ecclesiastical revenues amount to above three millions annually, I shall not attempt at present to say. The Welch curates are chiefly maintained by voluntary contributions, particularly by collections



collections of money made for them at funerals; and not only they, but some of the beneficed clergy also of that ill endowed part of Britain, are obliged to have recourse to the retailing of cider, and other such modes of trade, for subsistence. The number of Roman Catholic Priests in England is said to be three hundred and fifty, and that of the Roman Catholics about sixty thousand. Of the many other sects, all liberally tolerated, the Quakers form one, in number about sixty thousand; and the Jews are said to consist of about the same number.

The revenues of the members of the English hierarchy taken together amount to above ninety-two thousand pounds annually; those of the rest of the established clergy to three millions, or more than that sum §. The bishop of Durham has of all the hierarchs the greatest revenue, eight thousand seven hundred pounds; the bishop of Bangor the least, twelve hundred pounds. Of the dioceses Lincoln is the most extensive, and Rochester the smallest. In the tables at the end of this volume are stated the revenues of the bishops with the number of parishes in each diocese, and of these what number are impropriated ||. Beside 257 parishes in the diocese of Canterbury, a hundred others called Peculiars are subject to that see, which are situate in other dioceses, but exempt from the ju-

§ It is calculated at a much higher sum by persons not ill qualified to judge of it. Arthur Younge (*Travels in France*, vol. ii. p. 531) says it cannot be stated at less than five millions.

|| See Beatson's *Political Index*, Edinburgh, 1786, p. 5—165.

jurisdiction of the ordinary bishops. Of the parishes under the see of Winchester twenty-four are in Jersey and the other isles near it on the coast of Normandy.

In North Britain and its isles the religion established by law and mostly professed is Calvinism, which differs chiefly from the church of England in having for its fundamental principle a parity of rank and authority among its clergy; all the ecclesiastics of the church of Scotland being equal in dignity, and forming among themselves a kind of ecclesiastical commonwealth of the democratic sort. Each parish is superintended in spiritual matters by the minister as president, assisted by a lay officer called a Bailly, and other lay persons called Elders. The ministers and ruling elders of between twelve and twenty contiguous parishes, assembled with a Moderator at their head elected by themselves, compose a Presbytery, which determines matters too intricate for the parochial sessions or assemblies, and examines candidates for ordination. These presbyteries are sixty-nine in number, and are subordinate to the provincial synods, each of which consists of clergy from four or five neighbouring presbyteries, with a moderator in like manner for president. The highest authority acknowledged by the Scottish church is the General Assembly, or Convocation, which is a kind of ecclesiastical parliament, composed of two or more deputies from each presbytery, and a Commissioner from each University and Royal Burgh, with a Commissioner for President appointed by the

Scottish church.

the King, without whose consent no laws or canons can be enacted.

The number of livings in the church of Scotland is nine hundred and fifty; of which five hundred are in the King's patronage; the rest in the presentation of different lay patrons. The parishioners have a right to object against the person presented by the patron, but the objection has no validity unless admitted by the General Assembly. No sinecures are allowed, and the number of clergy cannot be much greater than that of the parishes, since no incumbent is permitted to keep a curate, except in case of infirmity by age or sickness. Their revenues are very small; being in general from sixty to a hundred and twenty pounds a year; some only forty or fifty, and none above a hundred and fifty. The Calvinists seem every where to have resolved that their clergy should not be much indulged with temporal goods. A fund is, very properly, raised from their stipends by act of parliament for the support of their widows and children after their decease. So exemplary are as yet\* the lives of these ecclesiastics, that notwithstanding their nar-

\* "Unless a general augmentation of stipends becomes an object to persons of influence, the clergy of Scotland must degenerate. If they become objects of compassion, their weight must be lessened, and no respectability of character will counterbalance that evil. Should the teachers of religion be meanly thought of on account of their poverty, religion will suffer, and if good morals decline, industry, which requires regularity and sobriety of conduct, must decline also." Sinclair's Statistical View of Scotland.



row revenues, they support, in some degree, the dignity of the clerical order, and draw much more respect from the people than the South-*British* clergy †.

Universities are to be considered as in a great measure religious establishments, since they were originally quite of an ecclesiastical nature, and are still in no small degree such, being the seminaries in which all the clergy of the established churches receive their education. In Britain are six universities; of which two are in England, those of Oxford and Cambridge; and four in Scotland, those

Universi-  
tica.

† — Loose in morals, and in manners vain,

In conversation frivolous, in dress

Extreme, at once rapacious and profuse;

Frequent in park, with lady at his side,

Ambling and prattling scandal as he goes;

But rare at home, and never at his books,

Or with his pen, save when he scrawls a card;

Constant at routes, familiar with a round

Of ladyships, a stranger to the poor;

Ambitious of preferment for its gold,

And well prepared by ignorance and sloth,

By infidelity and love o' the world,

To make God's work a sinecure; a slave

To his own pleasures and his patron's pride.

*From such apostles, oh, ye mitred heads*

*Preserve the church! and lay not careless hands*

*On skulls that cannot teach and will not learn.*

COWPER.

It is to be hoped that these very severe strictures of the poet on the South-*British* clergy are justly applicable to no great proportion of them. The admonition, however, at the end certainly merits attention: Yet, what *skull* can be below a thirty pound benefice or a ten pound curacy?

of

of Edinburg, Glasgou, Saint Andrew's and Aberdeen. The two English universities, each of which is a great collection of colleges, are eminent in the wealth and splendor of their foundations; but though they have been gradually much reformed, they "preserve still too much of the spirit of the age of Alfred, and have lost long ago the lead in science and national literature, which is at present transferred to the metropolis †." The North-British universities have less of the monastic spirit, and bear a nearer resemblance to the Protestant colleges in Germany §.

The city of Oxford, where stands the greatest of the British universities, is situate, near sixty miles west by north from London, on the river Tems, extending with its suburbs three miles in length. If the great Alfred founded a university here, as has been asserted, it was totally destroyed after his time by the Danes. Some colleges were erected about the middle of the thirteenth century, and others added afterwards; so that their number is in all twenty-five, of which five are denominated halls; the whole sometimes containing three thousand students, or between that number and two thousand.

The university of Cambridge, consisting of sixteen colleges, including such as are denominated halls, and about fifteen hundred students, was founded about the middle of the thirteenth cen-

† Zimmermann.

§ See before, vol. ii. p. 301.

tury ; but is supposed, like Oxford, to have had a much earlier origin in the times of the Anglo-Saxons. The town of Cambridge, inhabited by twelve or thirteen thousand people, lies in a low situation, about fifty-two miles north by east from London. Its vicinity to the great race-course of Newmarket is an unfavorable circumstance to the university, as the students are apt thereby to imbibe a preposterous spirit of horsemanship, to the neglect of their studies and the debasement of their morals ; many of them, instead of gentlemen and scholars, adopting in a great measure the low despicable characters of grooms and jockeys, characters which too many retain through the rest of their lives ||.

At Edinburg is a university, founded by James the Sixth of Scotland in the year 1580, with mean buildings, deficient funds, and about a thousand students, who wear no distinctive academical habit. Here is a college of physicians incorporated by a charter of Charles the Second of England, in 1681, which, by the great perseverance and improvements of its professors, has become the first medical seminary in the world. At Glasgow is a thriving

|| To this and other irregularities of both universities the poet alludes.

—— Gowns at length are found mere masquerade ;  
The tasseled cap and the spruce band a jest,  
A mockery of the world. What need of these  
To gamesters, *jockeys*, brothelers impure,  
Spendthrifts, and booted sportsmen, oftner seen  
With belted waist, and pointers at their heels,  
Than in the bounds of duty ?

COWPER.

college,



college, consisting of three courts the best built in Scotland; to which belong five or six hundred, and of late, it is said, more students, whose academical robe is a red gown. The university of Saint Andrews, founded in the beginning of the fifteenth century, consists of three colleges, two of which are now united, and in which some years ago the students were said to be only a hundred in number. The university of Aberdeen is composed of two colleges, one in the Old-Town founded in the year 1500, and one in the New-Town founded in 1593, of which the professors wear black robes, and the students red.

Litera-  
ture.

The literature of Britain, formerly confined to universities and gownmen, is now very far from being restrained within such narrow limits. In no other country is true genuine learning more diffused; in none has it been cultivated with equal success. Here the human mind, knowing no other restraints than those of equal laws, displays its native vigor, disengages itself from the shackles of vulgar prejudices, and, acting with an energy elsewhere, until lately, unknown, vindicates the dignity of man. "This is the nation," says a celebrated French writer \*, "which first discovered the injustice and iniquity of ecclesiastical power, the limits of regal authority, and the abuses of the feudal government. This is the nation which was the first to revolt and to throw off this triple load of oppression, and is now undoubtedly the first people

\* The Abbé Raynal.

in the universe." The Britons are observed to pursue their favorite studies with ardent zeal and indefatigable assiduity. Hence, aided by that expansion of soul which is the natural effect of true liberty, they have pushed their reflections on various subjects to depths unattempted before, and have carried the sciences to an unrivalled pitch of improvement.

The reflective and persevering genius of the Britons has produced, even in the times of general ignorance and barbarism, some extraordinary examples of erudition. Friar Bacon, who lived in the thirteenth century, was quite a prodigy in mathematical and physical science. But in more enlightened times these branches of knowledge received their great improvement from the wonderful Sir Isaac Newton, whose understanding was more than human, at least rose far above the common pitch of humanity. As no nation can pretend to shew a rival to this prince of philosophers, so Milton stands unequalled, among both ancients and moderns, in the sublime of poetry. "More concise than Homer, more simple than Tasso, more nervous than Lucretius; had he lived in a better age, and learned to polish some rudeness in his verses; had he possessed better fortune, and enjoyed leisure to watch the returns of genius in himself; he had attained the pinnacle of human perfection, and borne away the palm of epic poetry †."

In metaphysics Britain may boast of a Locke, and in history of a Gibbon and several other excel-

† Hume.

lent writers. A foreigner † has justly observed that acute observation, piercing conjecture, and elegant portraitures of men and manners, distinguish the British historians. The lead which this nation has taken in the various paths of literature may cause some wonder, when we consider that little, or rather no encouragement has been given to merit. In the reigns of the two first Georges not a ray of comfort beamed from the throne on the labors of the learned; and the only reward, which they could expect from their toils, was the precarious profit arising from the sale of their writings to an enlightened indeed, but too easily prejudiced public, a public divided into violent factions, and rejecting what has truth and impartiality for its object without flattering the prepossessions of any party; while the venal pens of unprincipled hireling scribblers are employed by eminent persons to confound truth and falsehood, and to blacken with torrents of virulent invective the best intentioned actions of the opposite party. Thus has a writer been found to employ his furious declamatory unmeaning rhetoric on opposite sides of the same question, in parliamentary speeches and publications, well knowing that by embracing each extreme in its turn he could most please the party who for the time encouraged him §.

*The*

† Riefbeck.

§ I am sorry that this extravagantly vehement declaimer on both sides of the question happens to be of Irish birth and origin, since it is so strong an instance in favor of the poet's sarcasm;

Hibernia



*The cruel neglect, with which persons of true literary merit are treated by the great, who lavish vast sums on frivolous, sometimes pernicious objects, a pittance of which, if applied to the encouragement of literature, would produce noble effects, is a matter of melancholy reflection, when we consider how many excellent works are lost to the public by the poverty of ingenious men, who are thereby disabled from publishing or finishing their compositions; compositions which would add to the stock of human knowledge, meliorate the morals, and consequently augment the happiness of mankind; while perhaps the persons, who are capable of producing, and glow with ardor for the execution of, such works, are buried alive in the most ungrateful of all drudgeries, the drudgery of obscure unendowed schools, where their talents are lost to society, confounded with the common herd of ignorant, dull, pedantic pedagogues, and, with a candor, sensibility, and spirit, which are the natural concomitants of fine parts, exposed to the knavery of boys, and to the ignorance, absurd prejudices, and insolence of parents.*

Those literary clubs or societies of critics, who under the title of Reviewers have erected themselves into tribunals to decide on the merit of all publications, may be expected to promote the cul-

Hibernia fam'd 'bove every other grace  
For matchless intrepidity of face;  
From her his features caught the generous flame,  
And bid defiance to all sense of shame.

Churchill's *Roseiad*.

ture

ture of letters, and they are doubtless not without utility; but it is to be lamented that their criticisms are anonymous, since they are thereby screened from the shame of detection when they pronounce unfair judgments. Authors who happen to be members of these societies panegyricize in the Reviews their own publications, while works of far superior merit are censured, malignantly praised, or neglected. If a set of Reviewers would make it a rule to subscribe with an honest boldness their names to their criticisms, I imagine that, as they would merit, so they might obtain superior encouragement.

People.

The inhabitants of Britain, denominated collectively Britons, thus, notwithstanding various defects, eminent in political liberty, purity of religion, and cultivation of literature, are, from a diversity of origin, language, and other circumstances, distinguished into four divisions, or denominations of people, the English, the Lowland-Scots, the Highland Scots, and the Welch.

The English.

The English, inhabiting that great division of Britain which is called England, are the predominant, and by far the most numerous people of this great island. They derive their origin from those tribes who, under the names of Belgians in early times, and afterwards under those of Saxons, Angles, Jutes, and Danes, migrated hither from the Netherlands, Germany, and the coasts of the Baltic; but have also in their composition some considerable mixture of emigrants from France and other countries, who came into England at different periods, particularly in the time of William the Conqueror.

queror. In their personal appearance, and natural disposition, they bear a general resemblance to the Germans and other nations descended from the same source; but from a variety of causes, particularly the nature of their political constitution, peculiarities arise in their national character.

The English are in general of a good stature, and Persons. less corpulent than most of the German and Scandinavian nations. They have uncommonly fine complexions, fair and florid; grey eyes, and hair mostly of a light, and often of a dark brown color. The diffusion of liberty and perfect security through all ranks, even the lowest, is accompanied with a like diffusion of personal advantages. Perhaps no rural people equal those of England; its female peasantry seeming to surpass in beauty those of their class in every country of the world. The extraordinary cleanness and neatness in houses, persons, and attire, for which the English are very remarkable, and which is found even among the lowest cottagers, must contribute highly to the superior charms of the English females. A comeliness is visible also among the males, but much more in the rural parts than in the great manufacturing towns; the occupation of sedentary trades having bad effects on the human constitution ||. It has been observed that the blessings of liberty seem to be imparted in some degree even to the quadrupedes; the horses and other cattle being far better fed, more

|| See Buchan's Domestic Medicine.



sleek and handsome, than those which belong to peasants in most other countries \*.

**Habits.** In dress the English differ little from the French, and, like that people, are perpetually changing the fashion of their clothes. This incessant fluctuation in the forms of dress, which prevails much more among the female than the male sex, is attended with no small inconvenience to persons of straitened circumstances, who think themselves obliged to pursue their superiors in fortune, whatever the expence may be, through a giddy round of fantastic modes of attire.

**Food.** In food the English use a more than ordinary proportion of beef, mutton, and other kinds of animal aliment, in a state which, other nations would account half raw, and it must be confessed, are in general much too prone to indulge themselves in eating, both in respect of frequency and quantity, to the engendering of the gout and various other distempers, particularly in those who think themselves entitled to lead an indolent life, or take

\* This is a remark of Angeloni the Italian Jesuit in his letters on the English nation. To form an idea of the English character, several foreigners as well as native writers have been consulted. The former are more liable to mistakes than the latter, but are more apt to make remarks on matters which from familiarity escape the notice of natives; at least they are less to be suspected of a favorable partiality. I am very sorry to say, that, from the reports of my countrymen who have lately visited England, I have reason to think that the cleanliness and other tokens of comfort in the lower classes are visibly in a state of decline: and what else could be expected from the astonishing system of taxation pursued through a long series of years?

not sufficient exercise to counteract the bad effects of the indulgence of the palate. An infusion of tea, mostly sweetened with sugar, and whitened with cream or milk, is a liquor universally in use among the English, not only in the morning to dilute breakfast, but also as a beverage in the evening. It would certainly appear very strange, if it were not rendered familiar by custom, that two articles of food, imported from immense distances, have long gained by habit a place among the common necessities of life to the English; sugar, brought by a voyage of four or five thousand miles from the tropical islands of America; and tea, transported through a course of twelve or thirteen thousand miles from China. The bread which is in general use is wheat flour; but in Westmoreland, and other mountainous parts, oat meal is much eaten by the common people, both made into bread, and boiled into a kind of hasty pudding called Stirabout. Bread is also made of rye or barley, and, particularly about Leominster in Herefordshire, of rye, wheat, and barley, blended together.

In their temperament the English are rather grave and phlegmatic, but not without a tincture of vivacity. In true wit and genuine humour they are perhaps not inferior to any people. They are of an active cast of mind, have an alertness for business, and an inclination for exercise; persons of opulence, not excepting the fair sex, being much more addicted to active amusements than people of their condition in other nations, even the most sprightly. But, as on one hand they have not the

Disposition.

uniform saturnine temper and invincible phlegm of the Germans; so, on the other, they are far from enjoying the unremitting gayety of the French. Like their gloomy and unsettled atmosphere, their spirits are sometimes brisk, sometimes dull, and apt in many persons to sink on occasions to dejection and despondence. This occasional proneness to melancholy, a spirit of chagrin or splenetic turn of mind, a certain violence of desire ill fitted to bear disappointments, and a propensity to carry all their passions to excess, may cause that frequency of suicide, by which the English have been distinguished in a melancholy manner among the neighbouring nations.

The lowness of spirits, to which great numbers of the English are subject at intervals, may probably arise from some uncommon delicacy in the nervous system. From the same cause probably originates a kind of bashful sensibility, or an involuntary, but obstinate shyness, reserve, and incommunicative turn toward strangers, which, in some individuals, yields not to that which is alone qualified to overcome it, a constant intercourse with polite company.

The English have the solid sense, the persevering spirit, the integrity and sincerity of the Germans. They are possessed of an uncommon share of candor, often accompanied with an unsuspecting temper, as they are apt to presume the same probity in others of which they are conscious in themselves, which often renders them liable to be duped by the artifices of the fraudulent. But the ingenuous, candid, unsuspecting, and tenderly affectionate heart belongs



belongs more particularly to the fair sex, whose discretion and modesty, for which they are equally conspicuous, prove too often insufficient to guard them against the ungenerous wiles of base men who meditate their ruin: a species of deception, to which great numbers of English females are the lamentable victims, and which above all others demonstrates an abominable turpitude in its author;—for undoubtedly the man is an utter stranger to every sentiment of generosity, and even to every tender feeling of humanity, who can abandon to infamy and wretchedness, or even under the title of husband treat with cruelty, the innocent unsuspecting female, who, from affection to his person, and reliance on his honor and integrity, has put herself in his power.

Conformably to that candor and sincerity, which Manners. seem to be in some degree constitutional in this nation, and to that political liberty which they so eminently enjoy, the English generally despise that affected stile of behaviour which is so much in fashion in some other countries, and act with a downright unstudied plainness. This, we must confess, is often carried to such a length as to amount to an offensive bluntness; but is mostly, however, rather of a laudable nature; no people having less of a cringing manner, or being less qualified to ask assistance from others; for, the object in general of each man's industry and attention is to secure an independent support.

Freed from the shackles of civil and religious tyranny, the English, above most other nations, act  
from

from a pure native unrestrained impulse, rely on themselves, and pursue the dictates of their own reason or caprice. Hence arises an amazing variety of individual characters, of which some are the strangest and most eccentric imaginable. Here is to be seen a motley jumble of oddities and contrarieties; extremes of industry and debauchery, frugality and profusion, civility and rusticity, fanaticism and scepticism. Yet notwithstanding great and innumerable deviations, no nation on the whole amount acts more in conformity with right reason. None are less biassed by prejudice, or pay less regard to established customs; it being observed that in general Englishmen, when once convinced of the propriety of their designs, are apt to set custom at defiance, and to pursue their objects regardless of censure or ridicule †. Few people set less value on secondary accomplishments, such as a skill in music, a graceful air, or even a polite address; which, though they certainly have their share of merit, ought not to be cultivated in such a manner as to exclude more noble qualifications, except by

† Stern o'er each bosom reason holds her state,  
 With daring aims irregularly great;  
 Pride in their port, defiance in their eye,  
 I see the lords of human kind pass by,  
 Intent on high designs, a thoughtful band,  
 By forms unfashioned, fresh from nature's hand;  
 Fierce in their native hardness of soul,  
 True to imagin'd right above controul,  
 While even the peasant boasts these rights to scan,  
 And learns to venerate himself as man.

Goldsmith's Traveller.

those

those whose talents are such as enable them not to arrive at higher acquirements.

Few people hold birth, rank, and title, when unsupported by personal merit, in less estimation. The nobles themselves have sentiments of too liberal a nature to expect a servile submission from their inferiors, or other respect than that which sensible and well-bred men are ever ready to pay to the worthy descendants of illustrious ancestors, or to any men of rank and opulence, who behave with a probity and decorum suitable to their station. Too little respect, no doubt, is sometimes shewn to men of rank by the vulgar, whose insolence sometimes seems hardly supportable: but so peculiar are the ideas of the English, that gentlemen, even nobles, have been known, to the utter astonishment of foreigners, to resent the affronts of some of the meanest of the populace, and to expose their persons by entering the lists against them in boxing matches. That gentlemen should be qualified for these athletic engagements, boxing has been reduced to an art, and taught, in like manner as fencing, by professed masters †.

A disrespect toward the clergy has been observed and reprobated by foreigners, even among the gentry and the higher ranks of the nation. Perhaps many among the English clergy merit by their mo-

† Gentlemen may be said at present to have abandoned the savage glory of boxing entirely to the populace, who being now no longer animated by their example are beginning to have less relish for this brutal sport.



ral conduct little enough of deference, considered as individuals: but that, I hope, is far from being the case with the majority, who appear to be men of virtue and of exemplary lives, and of whom many have contributed by their literary productions to the improvement of their countrymen at home, and their honor abroad. The clergy indeed formerly brought themselves into disrepute by endeavouring to obtrude on the people Tory principles, or an acquiescence with absolute monarchy; but the real source of disrespect seems to lie elsewhere, in the abject poverty of many of the officiating ministers: for, when clergymen are by their circumstances placed in the rank of peasants, will they in general respect themselves as they ought? or can they behave with a dignity which may command the respect of others? If any have it in their power to rectify these abuses, can they, when they suffer them to subsist, have any great concern for the inculcation of true religion, on which the present and future happiness of mankind so essentially depend?

I am very sorry to have to say that, notwithstanding the excellence of the British constitution, its defects are such that a spirit of corruption pervades the body politic, and threatens to contaminate the manners of the nation. The court exerts a most extensive influence by the multitude of lucrative offices in its donation, and such is the state of things become by this mode of procedure, that, in general, those, who are not engaged by motives of private interest, are apt to oppose the most salutary designs

designs in order to embarrass the opposite party. Thus interest predominates in every department, and, with the admission of a very few exceptions, by it alone promotion is to be obtained: *A dreadful discouragement to every species of merit* §.

The effects, however, of genuine freedom, and that amalgamation of ranks which I have noticed before, are such, that, notwithstanding a scandalously libertine course of living, to which unfortunately too many of the younger nobles and gentry are addicted, the great, and persons in power, shew a lenity and forbearance toward the lower classes, which has surprized all observing strangers who have visited the country. On the other hand the common people, though often guilty of excesses, and much addicted to drunkenness in great towns, have in general a spirit of justice and order, a probity, liberality, and good sense, not to be found in that class under arbitrary governments. Few instances, comparatively speaking, of violence and cruelty occur. A species of generosity and humanity appears even among robbers, who very seldom maltreat the persons of those whom they despoil of their money; whereas in other countries robbery is generally accompanied with murder.

§ Till time may come, when stript of all her charms,  
This land of scholars, and this nurse of arms,  
Where noble stems transmit the patriot flame,  
Where kings have toiled, and poets pant, for fame,  
One sink of level avarice shall lie,  
And scholars, soldiers, kings, unhonored die.

GOLDSMITH.

Yet,

Yet, though the English seem to merit the first rank in genius and magnanimity, and appear to be the most enlightened nation in the world, they are still inferior to the French in some points of social life, but by no means on the whole amount of civilization. A social intercourse between the two sexes, on a footing of perfect equality, tends powerfully to refine in a proper degree the manners of the one, and to improve the understandings of the other. But an illaudable propensity still prevails among the English to exclude the fair sex from convivial meetings. Hence the table debauchery of men, their gross and indecent language too frequent on such occasions, which a person of reflexion must be surprized and disgusted to hear among a people reputed so civilized: hence also the frivolity of conversation in the other sex, who are in general little qualified, by education or their course of life, to talk of much more elevated subjects than the fashions of dress, the games of cards, or other arrangements contrived for the spending of time in an unprofitable and insipid manner.

Females, it is true, are protected by the laws, yet doubtless not altogether so completely as they ought, and are treated by many with a tenderness which becomes enlightened and generous minds; but they are not so fully associates as in France, and are far from enjoying that state of equality with the other sex, which by nature and reason is their due. Their situation is by no means congruous with the rule of right. On one hand their general mode of education, ill fitted to illuminate the understanding,



ing, to direct the thoughts and attention to worthy objects, and to fortify the soul with firmness and fortitude, has a tendency to render them the victims of sense, of passion, of fantastic notions, or, which is lamentably often the case, the dupes of tinsel embellishments in the other sex, of fallacious appearances, and of insidious professions; while, on the other, they are treated as if they were expected to act as infallible beings, abandoned without means of redemption to disgrace and misery for a single false step, such a step as in males would be regarded as a mere trifling error scarcely meriting notice. *This most iniquitous law of opinion, by which numbers of females of the finest hearts and affections are every day sacrificed, is a stubborn, irrefragable, and melancholy proof of a wide distance in the English from that perfect civilization, which has not as yet found place in any people, and which will doubtless be characterized by a conformity with right reason in opinions, maxims, and generally adopted modes of conduct* ||.

The

|| It has been observed that nations blessed with liberty are more apt than nations under absolute monarchy to treat with injustice and rigor those who happen to be in subjection to them, supposing the degrees of civilization to be nearly the same. Men are apt to regard their female associates as their property, and to consider as unpardonable crimes in them such deviations from moral rectitude as in their own sex appear to them small venial errors, or rather no faults at all. The Spaniards and Italians, though on the whole less civilized than the English, seem to allow more equitable judgment to women. I can scarcely conceive any thing more irrational and absurd than an opinion which

The neglect of giving a timely and due direction to the minds of ladies, with respect to the objects of reflexion and study, gives room, beside other frivolities, to the misapplication of their attention to that fungous trash of novels with which the press teems for the indulgence of this vicious taste. Many throw away as much time and study on this barren subject, as might suffice for the acquisition of a large store of real useful information, particularly in History, that great volume of life, which displays to us the materials of wisdom in the errors of times past, experimentally shews the natural disunion of injustice and happiness, and furnishes altogether the soundest lessons of morality to states and individuals\*.

The

which I have found to obtain with many, that the amorous passions of women are more violent and ungovernable than those of the other sex; that their minds are much weaker, so that in equal degrees of passion they are much less able to resist temptation, and yet that their smallest errors in this respect are unpardonable, while in their sweet selves and in their own sex far greater transgressions of the like nature are hardly censurable.—None but the stupid or uncandid can infer from what I have said, that I allow too great latitude for vice. On the contrary I am plainly an advocate for equity. Whatever deviations are to be considered as venial in males ought certainly to be treated with at least as much lenity in females; and whatever are to be accounted inexpiable in the latter ought to be treated with at least as much rigor in the former.

\* I am not to be understood to mean, that no novels at all are to be read. Some (but the number is extremely small) are worthy of perusal. But, supposing them to be all works of great merit, how absurd is it to waste the time and memory on subjects

The English are observed by some foreigners to be more addicted than other Europeans to the pernicious vice of gaming, which consumes the time, contaminates the hearts, and hurts the fortunes of many. A species of this is horse-racing, in which, by a variety of low artifices adopted in that kind of diversion, the man of rank seems often to lose sight of his dignity, and to shrink into the jockey. Jockeyship in this and other forms engrosses the attention of too many of the English, numbers of whom waste their time and much of their revenues in the keeping of packs of hounds and horses for hunting. In fact the observation of a most judicious writer † is applicable to too great a number of the English gentry, that “the sports of the country and the diversions of the town, the gaming table, dogs, horses, and wine, are employed to fill up the blank of a listless and unprofitable life.” This dissipation, but, I am happy to say, with some bright exceptions, prevails chiefly among people of high rank, who ought to reflect, according to the observation of the same writer, that “the

subjects merely ideal or fantastic, to the total neglect of real knowledge? Some of the best of these publications have moral defects. Thus, that capital novel, Fielding’s *Tom Jones*, gives too much encouragement to ladies to bestow their persons on men of inferior fortune, on a supposition of their merit or generosity of soul. But the tender minds of young females are ill fitted to distinguish real merit, and a lady has but an indifferent chance of finding the generous husband in the lover who is actuated by the mercenary motive of enriching himself with her fortune.

† Ferguson on Civil Society.

higher



*higher orders of men, if they relinquish the state, if they cease to possess that courage and elevation of mind, and exercise those talents which are employed in its defence, and its government, are in reality, by the seeming advantages of their station, become the refuse of that society of which they once were the ornament †.*

To a frivolity of manners in the great, a frivolity however much less than in persons of the same class under absolute monarchy, the custom of sending young men to travel, at an age when no benefit is to be expected from travelling, is supposed to contribute. For to a person "by travelling so very young, by spending in the most frivolous dissipation the most precious years of his life, at a distance from the inspection and controul of his parents and relations, every useful habit, which the earlier parts of his education might have had some tendency to form in him, instead of being rivetted and confirmed, is almost necessarily either weakened or effaced" §.

The English have a high degree of national pride, and a contempt of other nations, which they take little care to conceal, and have thereby incurred the dislike of their neighbours, insomuch that, from this cause alone, most Europeans rejoiced at the defeats and misfortunes of Britain in the American war. Some intelligent foreigners have re-

† Large exceptions must be admitted in the report of Voltaire, who compared the English nation to a barrel of its own good ale, the top of which is froth, the bottom dregs, and the middle excellent stuff.

§ Smith on the Wealth of Nations.

marked that in no country is old age treated with less respect than among the English. The terms old man and old woman, the equipollents of which in other languages are importive of something venerable, often carry in English a contemptuous meaning. Young persons of twenty years of age, or a little more, commonly dictate the fashions and prescribe the taste with respect to the arrangements of company and amusement. Many endeavour to conceal the advance of years, and, instead of clothing themselves in a manner suitable to their age, expose themselves to the danger of colds and sickness, rather than not appear in a light youthful dress.

We may see from the above observations, and from many more which might be made, that though the English, from the nature of their government, are more apt to think for themselves than most other nations, and ought to be, and are, less guided by prejudice, they are yet in general far from being divested of it. Hence they retain some old customs, which might better be relinquished or exchanged for others. One of these customs is the drinking of healths one to another at meals, which seems to have no use nor meaning, and which, when not very moderately practised, is troublesome in company. The drinking of toasts is not so stupid a custom; yet this, unless cautiously conducted, is apt to occasion anger and quarrels.

The Lowland Scots inhabit those countries which are denominated the Scottish Lowlands, occupying all those parts of North-Britain which extend from the

The Low-  
land Scots.

## THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

the English border to the Friths of Clyde and Forth, and, together with some smaller tracts, the eastern coast from the latter Frith to that of Murray. They appear to be chiefly descended from the ancient Caledonians, afterwards denominated Picts, who were said by the prince of Roman historians to have had a German origin<sup>||</sup>, and whose ancestors had probably emigrated from the countries about the Baltic. They appear to have a tincture of Celtic blood, more especially toward the western coast, and of Saxon, particularly in the south-eastern. Their language, resembling the Swedish and Danish tongues, is a dialect of the English, with which it has had the same Germanic origin, and to which it has in the two last centuries become by intercourse more assimilated. They are scarcely distinguishable from those English who inhabit the territories which border Scotland<sup>\*</sup>; but they differ somewhat in aspect from the Southern English, and have more frequently hair of a light-brown, red, or yellowish color. Their habits are the same with those of the English, and English manners are gradually gaining ground among them; but they differ still in this respect by reason of political and

|| "Namque rutilæ Caledoniam habitantium comæ, magni artus, Germanicam originem asseverant." Tacitus de vitâ Agricolæ.

\* "A river here, there an ideal line,  
By fancy drawn, divides the sister kingdoms;  
On each side dwells a people similar  
As twins are to each other."

Home's Tragedy of Douglas.

accidental



accidental circumstances, for they were formerly under a distinct government, and have at present some difference of laws and religion.

What distinctive characteristics may by minute investigation be discovered in this denomination of Britons, I shall not attempt to particularize. Let it suffice to say, that they are accounted to have more of ancestral pride than the English; that the common people, from the poverty of their soil, subsist on less nutritious food, making mostly their bread of oatmeal; and that they have not as yet arrived at the same degree of neatness in their houses and manner of living; but are, collectively considered, a far more sober, regular, and frugal race; their gentry little acquainted with the despicable jockeyship, hunting, dissipation, and libertinism of South-Britain; and the common people a pattern to all of their class in every part of the world, in a regular earnest discharge of religious duties. Their industry is stimulated by a generous pride which aspires to an independent support. The religious turn of the Scots, which appears to be the strongest feature in their character, their inquisitive genius which leads them to an uncommon culture of letters, and a spirit of adventure which prompts them to seek riches in foreign countries, pervade every class, and are strongly characteristic of this part of the British nation.

The Highland-Scots, or Scottish-Highlanders, in-  
habit not only those mountainous tracts of North-  
Britain which are called the Highlands, but also  
the numerous Hebride Islands to the west. Their

The  
Highland  
Scots.

## THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

number, both in the mainland and isles, was some-time ago supposed to be eight hundred thousand, but is evidently decreasing from year to year. They are totally different in origin from the Lowland-Scots. They are doubtless of the Celtic race, but not without mixture. They are considered by some as the aboriginal inhabitants of Scotland, by others as the descendants of a colony from the Celts of Ireland. Their language, called Gaelic, Gailic, or Erse, is almost the same with the Irish. In their personal appearance they differ very sensibly from the English. They are raw-boned, lank and muscular. They have almost universally high cheek bones, and, excepting the gentry, are generally of a lower stature than the English †. They are also of a more swarthy complexion, caused by the poverty of their food, the smoke of their cabins, and exposure to the weather.

They retained an ancient kind of dress until it was prohibited, and that of the English enjoined in its place, by an act of the British parliament in the year 1747 ‡. It is still used by some Highland regiments in the military service, and all, or in part, by the people in some parts of the country, particularly Braidalbin. It is made of a kind of

† "The general size of the men is about five feet six inches; though, among the gentlemen and substantial graziers, where it is not stinted by penurious living, there are many who rise several inches above six feet." Newte, p. 237.

‡ They were permitted to resume their old dress in 1784; but none seem to have availed themselves of this permission, who had once relinquished it.

checquered

chequered stuff called Tartan, and consists chiefly of the bregban or plaid, which is a narrow piece of this stuff twelve or thirteen yards in length, wrapped round the middle and reaching to the knees, often girt round the waist, and in cold weather drawn in such a manner as to envelope the whole body. The stockings are short, and tied below the knee. Some of the genteeler sort wear the truish or trowze, which consists of breeches and stockings all in one piece. The kelt or fillebeg is a short petticoat reaching to the knees, substituted in modern times for the lower end of the plaid which hung so as to serve that purpose. The bonnet or cap is of a particular kind of blue stuff. The rude kind of shoes called brogues and cuoranen are falling into disuse. The women have conformed to the English habit, excepting that some still wear the plaid, and more of them the kirch, which is a piece of linen pinned round the head like a hood and over the forehead; but unmarried women commonly have only a ribbon round the head, which they call a snood.

The manners of the English, or rather of the Lowland Scots, have begun to spread among the Highlanders, but the difference in this respect is still considerable. From the sterility of the land, the want of commerce, and the oppression of their landlords, their poverty is extreme. They are often severely pinched by a scarcity of provisions, particularly in the spring, when they bleed their cattle, which are feeble enough at that season without such an operation, and, boiling the blood



into a solid black mass, cut it into slices for food. Their cottages are miserable narrow hovels. They are obliged to practise, in what manner they can, many handicraft trades; each man making in a rude way his own clothes, instruments of husbandry, and other necessary articles. Nurtured in cold, moisture, and penury, they are a most hardy race of mortals, admirably fitted to sustain the hardships of a military life; few people in the world being better able to bear the combined evils of hunger, fatigue, and inclement seasons. But this rigorous nurture destroys many lives; for out of many children, not very rarely twenty, born of one of the Highland women, who are in general prolific, it often happens that not one arrives at the age of maturity.

The Highlanders as yet retain many old prejudices. They have a high pride of ancestry, and pay such attention to genealogy as to trace back their pedigrees through a long series of generations. They have high notions of honor, and the lowest among them disdain to commit mean actions, or rather what they account such, for in the discrimination of honorable and dishonorable they have been so little guided by reason, that, while the slaying of a dead horse was reckoned a base office fit only for the hangman, the stealing of cows was esteemed an honorable exploit §. They have had so great an aversion to swine, that even yet many of them

§ Letters from a gentleman in Scotland to his friend in London.

cannot be induced to taste the flesh of that animal ||. Their want of civilization appears chiefly in their treatment of the fair sex, who among the common people are in little better condition than that of slaves. A variety of superstitious notions and customs derived from distant antiquity still prevail, but not every where equally. One of these is the coranigh, or funereal howl, with which the dead are attended previously to their interment.

As the Highlanders have much pride, they have also much resentment, and are apt to kindle into rage at the slightest matter conceived to be of an affrontive nature. From a want of incentives to industry they have a habit of indolence and idle curiosity, inquiring with avidity about news of every sort, how little soever these may concern them. They are very hospitable and generous, are decent in their general behaviour, and even the lowest among them have a kind of natural politeness. But whatever may be the manners of the Highlanders at present, a great revolution in this respect may be expected to take place in some years, as the immense fisheries on their coasts will, it is hoped, together with other objects, diffuse a spirit of industry among this hitherto neglected, but not least valuable, part of the British nation.

A very great change has already taken place within the present century. Notwithstanding their subjection to the British monarchy they retained among themselves the feudal system until it was

|| Pennant.

abolished

abolished by an act of the British legislature. The chiefs had an almost unlimited power over their vassals; and these on the other hand an almost indissoluble attachment to their chiefs, insomuch that even the religion of the chief was implicitly adopted by the clan or tribe over which he presided. Hence in some districts all are Catholics, and in others all are Protestants; but that of the latter is the prevailing religion. Since the dissolution of the feudal system they are become as quiet subjects as any in Britain, though formerly none could be more turbulent. Even yet, however, too much of feudal notions and feudal influence remains, for, the tenants, though protected by the laws, are still very much at the mercy of their landlords; it being very difficult for a poor man to obtain redress of grievances, because among other reasons, the courts of justice are too far distant from most parts of the Highlands. Hence to escape oppression great numbers emigrate to North-America, and a rapid depopulation takes place.

The  
Welch.

The Welch, or South-British Highlanders, inhabiting the Principality of Wales and the Isle of Anglesey which is politically included in it, are descended from those ancient Celtic South-Britons, who were conquered by the Romans. Some of this ancient British race are also to be found in the counties of Cornwall, Monmouth, Hereford, Salop, and in the Peak of Derbyshire. But these have lost their ancient language, and are not easily distinguishable from the English with whom they are intermixed. Except in Pembrokeshire, where a colony



lony of Flemings was planted in the beginning of the twelfth century, in the mineral parts of Flintshire, where miners from England are settled, and in some few other districts, the Welch retain the old South-British tongue, which, though a dialect of the Celtic, is very different from the Erse \*. This cannot be a matter of surprize, when it is considered that, though the Welch and Scottish Highlanders are both of ancient Celtic race, they are yet descended from different tribes †; that the ancestors of the Welch, having been near four centuries under the Roman dominion, must have considerably changed their language as well as manners; and that no intercourse has subsisted between them

\* The letters in the Welch language seldom alter their sound, and, with the admission of the following exceptions, are pronounced as in English. *Ch* has the force of the rough guttural *gh* as in the word *logh*; *dh* that of *th* soft as in the word *them*; *y* that of *e* in the words *mud* and *must*; *u* that of *oo*; *c* always that of *k*; *f* that of *v*; *ff* that of *f*; *ll* that of *lhl* strongly aspirated; *u* that of *i* in the words *limb* and *him*; *i* that of *i* in the words *win* and *kin* or of *ee* in *been*; *g* always that of the hard *g* as in the words *gain* and *gift*. *A* is a long vowel. To give an instance of some of the above sounds, *man* is pronounced like the English word *mane*; *Glyndwr* is sounded *Glundoor*, and *Llanvyllyn Tblauutblun*. Letter from Mr. Lhywd to Bishop Gibson in Gibson's *Britannia*; also a Gentleman's Tour in Monmouthshire, &c.

† The Welch are said to be descended from the Cimmerian, Cimbrian, or Cumraig Celts, who are supposed to have come into Britain from Germany; the Irish and Scottish Highlanders from the Gaelic Celts, who probably came from Gaul at an earlier period.

PINKERTON.

and

and the Scottish Highlander for at least seventeen, perhaps twenty-five, centuries.

The Welch are generally of a somewhat shorter stature, and have commonly thicker limbs and darker hair and complexions than the English, but the difference of personal traits is not very striking. Their dress is the same with that of the English, excepting that the common people affect more a brown color in their clothes, and have still a predilection for striped stuff like tartan, which seems to have been worn by several ancient nations †. This predilection appears chiefly in the women, many of whom wear a kind of bedgown, or loose wide jacket, of this cloth, descending below the waist.

The number of the Welch may be rated at five hundred thousand. Notwithstanding their long political union with the English, they differ from them perceptibly in notions and manners. Old feudal ideas are not quite extinguished. Ancestral pride and attention to genealogy prevail as in North-Britain. Among other ill founded prepossessions, they are apt to account industrious occupations as ignoble. They have high ideas of honor, are high spirited and choleric; but placable and good natured, generous and hospitable.

† Thus Virgil says of the Gauls, "*Virgatis lucent sagulis.*"

THE  
ISLANDS

ON THE

*EASTERN COAST OF BRITAIN*

ARE far from numerous, and either so inconsiderable as hardly to merit any particular description, or so very close to the main land as to be commonly considered as parts of the great island of Britain.

In the Frith of Forth are the Isles of May, Bass, May-Inch-Colm, and Inch-Keith. The Isle of May, a few miles from the coast of Fife, is but about a mile in length, inaccessible on the western side, but affording on the eastern, when westerly storms prevail, good riding for ships, for the direction of which a lighthouse has been erected on the island. The Isle of Bass, distant a mile from the town of Bass-Dunbar on the mainland, is a rock of stupendous height, about a mile in circuit, of nearly a conic shape on the southern side, overhanging the sea in a tremendous manner on the northern, and almost wholly covered during the months of May and June with the eggs and young of sea-fowl, the flocks of which at that season are so prodigious, as  
to



to darken the air in the manner of clouds. The profits of this otherwise barren rock, arising from the eggs, young, and feathers of these birds, are farmed at a considerable sum. On this isle are the ruins of an old castle, which was formerly the state prison of the kingdom of Scotland. Inch-Keith, situate opposite to Kinghorne, and near the middle of the Frith, extends about a mile in length, and yields good pasturage, whence it received from the French, who had a temporary possession of it in the sixteenth century, the name of *l'Isle aux Chevaux*. Inch Colm is very inconsiderable, and but a very small way from the mainland.

Lindis-  
farn.

On the coast of Northumberland are the isles of Lindisfarn, Farn, and some others. Lindisfarn, or Holy-Island, is hardly two miles distant from the mainland, extending two miles and a quarter from east to west, and near a mile and a half from north to south, besides that a spit of land runs from the northwest near a mile in length. In the southern part of this island, which was once the residence of a bishop, are the ruins of a monastery; and a little to the north of it, a village inhabited by fishermen. Farther to the south, but of a much smaller size, and very rocky, are Farn Islands, frequented by multitudes of sea-fowl, among which is the Eiden-duck; and much farther still to the south is the little Isle of Coquet, opposite to the mouth of a river so called, founded on a stratum of coal.

Farn.

On the coast of Essex are some low marshy islands, as Horsey, Mersea, Wallasea, Fowlness, Canvey, and some others, parted from the main by

by very small channels, some of which are, at low water, fordable or almost dry. Mersea, situated at the mouth of the river Colne, extends five miles in length, and is joined to the main by a causeway called the Strode covered by the tide at high water. The channel which parts Fowlness, the largest of these islands, is passable by horsemen at the time of ebb. Canvey, within the mouth of the Tems, is of less dimensions, containing about 3600 acres.

Belonging to Kent are the isles of Sheppey and Thanet. The former, seven miles long and three broad, containing the town of Queenborough, and parted from the main by the east and west Swale, which are the effluent channels of Medway, is supposed to have received its name from the numbers of sheep which grazed on its fertile soil. Thanet, or Tenet, seven miles long and four broad, is parted from the mainland by the waters of the river Stour, in the same manner as the Isle of Sheppey by those of the Medway; but the separating channels are so small that it may well be reckoned a part of the great island of Britain. It contains the towns of Margate and Ramsgate, and its soil, which has a substratum of chalk, is uncommonly fertile and well cultivated.

THE  
ISLANDS

ON THE

*SOUTHERN COAST OF BRITAIN,*

WITH exception of the Isle of Wight, are not of such nature as to merit more than to be barely mentioned. Portsea, in which stands the naval town of Portsmouth, is joined to the mainland by a bridge, and is, besides, not actually an island except at high water. In the same inlet are the smaller isles of Haling and Thorney; and in the harbor of Poole in Dorsetshire are some of a still smaller size; the largest of which is Branksea, or Brunksea.

Wight.

Wight, separated from the coast of Hampshire by a channel formerly called the Solent, from twelve to four miles broad, except at its western entrance between Sharpnor castle and that of Hurst, where its breadth is less than two, is a beautiful island, of a form approaching to the oval and terminating in two peninsulas, which are formed by two inlets entering from the north. The island is not very easy of access, having many rocks around its shores on the east, south, and west and sand-banks on the north. The coasts on the south and west are bold  
and



and precipitous, particularly the latter, where the cliffs have a sublime and terrific appearance, many of them overhanging the deep to the height of nearly seven hundred feet §. Of three lofty white rocks called the Needles, which stood in the sea near the western point of the island, and which seem to have been disjoined from the land by the attrition of the deep, two only are now seen; the third, named Lot's-Wife, which rose in form of an obelisk one hundred and twenty feet above the water, having some years ago fallen and totally disappeared ||.

A ridge of hills affording excellent pasture for sheep, runs from east to west longitudinally through the island, which extends hardly twenty-three miles in length, about twelve in breadth, and contains in area at least eight thousand English, or fifty thousand Irish acres. As a proof of the mildness of its temperature, its myrtles are said to grow without any artificial protection in the open air. Its soil, more cultivated in the southern parts, more pastured in the northern, is highly prolific, and is reported to yield corn enough in one good year for the support of its inhabitants, between twenty and thirty thousand in number, during seven or eight years. It is extremely well watered with springs and streams, of which the principal is the river Mede or Cowes, flowing from south to north, and navigable by small vessels four miles above its efflux, as far as Newport the capital town of the island, in which

§ Hassel's Tour of Wight.

|| Worley's History of Wight, p. 274.

are three or four thousand inhabitants. A mile hence stands on a high rock Carebrook-castle, where Charles the First was confined; and on the noreast side of the island, the town of Saint Helens with its famous road for the accommodation of shipping.

This island, which is politically a part of Hampshire, but in ecclesiastical jurisdiction subject to the Bishop of Winchester, is distinguished into the two divisions called the Hundreds of East Meden and West Meden, both which together contain thirty parishes, and send from three boroughs six members to the British parliament. Its inhabitants are English, for it accompanied the great neighbouring island in its revolutions, subdued by the Romans in the middle of the first century, by the Saxons in the year 530, and by the Normans under Fitz-Osbern a commander of William the First about the year 1070. It bore among the ancients the names of Vectis and Vecta, and is also supposed to have been the same which was denominated Icta, though this appellation seems to have belonged to some of the Scilly isles.

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THE

SCILLY ISLANDS,

LYING almost thirty miles westward of Cornwall, form a cluster of small isles and islets, supposed to be about a hundred and forty in number,  
of

of which only six are inhabited, the rest being only waste spots, or masses of barren rock, of which description is the Isle of Scilly properly so called, which stands farthest to the northwest, and is only a huge desolate crag. Their temperature is such as might be expected from their situation and small extent of surface. No great degree is felt of heat in summer or cold in winter. Frost seldom comes, and snow never continues long unthawed. The soil is accounted fertile, but little improved. The land is destitute of trees. Most kinds of grain succeed well, and potatoes are said to thrive to such a degree that two crops of them are raised in some places within the year\*; but the culture of wheat has been attended with very little success. These islands are exempt from serpents. Sheep and rabbits are numerous. Horses and neats are small. The flesh of the latter is said to be sweet, though they feed much on oreweed, or marine plants.

The inhabitants, above a thousand in number, seem to be mostly of ancient British descent, though their language is the English tongue. Their chief object of industry on land is kelp, of which they make to the value of at least five hundred pounds annually; but their activity is exerted chiefly on the deep, to which they are habituated from their infancy; hence they are excellent pilots, and admirably expert in the management of boats.

These islands, denominated Sorlings by the Dutch, were known to the ancients under the names of Cassiterides, Hesperides, Oestrymnides,

\* Campbell's Political Survey, vol. ii. p. 479. Dub. 1775.



Sigdeles, Sillincæ, and Silures. They were frequented by the Phenicians and Carthaginians, who traded there, or at least in the neighbouring peninsula of Cornwall, for tin and lead. They doubtless followed the fortune of Britain with respect to foreign invaders, but they are supposed to have been formerly of much greater size than at present, and to have suffered at some time between the fifth and tenth centuries, (during which period History is quite silent concerning them,) a great diminution by an earthquake, by which great part of the land, together with all mines of tin, are conjectured to have been buried in the deep†; for very little of this metal is at present found in them.

The property of the lands of these islands has been vested above two hundred years past in the noble family of Godolphin. In ecclesiastical matters they are subject to the see of Exeter. In all this insular cluster is only one clergyman, who resides in the Island of Saint Mary, and visits the other isles once in the year; but, to compensate in some degree this want of clerical persons, prayers and sermons are read on Sundays in the churches by laymen appointed for that purpose. Justice in civil cases is administered by what is called the Court of Twelve, composed of the commander in chief, the proprietor's agent, the chaplain, and nine persons elected by the people. This court compromises differences, and punishes offences of a less atrocious nature; but for capital crimes the of-

† Phil. Trans. vol. 48. No. 7.

fenders must be sent for trial to the county of Cornwall.

In this cluster of isles are three harbors, the principal one of which is that of Saint Mary's, sheltered on the south by the island of that name, and elsewhere by smaller isles. The six inhabited islands are Saint Mary's, Saint Martin's, Trefcaw, Brehar, Samson, and Saint Agnes.

Saint Mary's, the greatest of this cluster, extends about two miles and a half in length, one and a half in breadth, contains above six hundred persons, pays about three hundred pounds annually in rent, and is defended by a fortress called Star-Castle, which is built on a high peninsula on the western side of the island, and garrisoned by a company of soldiers, besides that three hundred islanders may be summoned to its defence occasionally, at least all who are fit to bear arms.

Saint Martin's, distant about two miles northward from Saint Mary's, and nearly half as large, is inhabited by about seventeen families, and is remarkable for good pasture. A mile to the west of Saint Martin's, and of a scarcely superior size, is Trefcaw, or Saint Nicholas Island, yielding plenty of the finest samphire, containing the only tin mines known at present in these isles; and inhabited by about forty families, who pay about eighty pounds yearly rent. Brehar, or Bryer, mountainous, abounding in samphire, inhabited by twelve or thirteen families, and paying about thirty pounds of rent annually, lies west of Trefcaw, to which the inhabitants can sometimes pass by fording when

Saint  
Agnes.

the sea is very low. The isle of Samson contains only one family. Saint Agnes, or Lighthouse Island, lying nearly three miles to the southwest of Saint Mary's, very small and ill supplied with fresh water, yet well cultivated, containing about fifty families, and paying forty pounds of annual rent, is chiefly remarkable for its lighthouse, before the erection of which these islands were infamous for shipwrecks †.

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THE  
ISLANDS

OF THE

SEVERN SEA

CONSIST, beside some still smaller, of the four little isles of Flat-holm, Step-holm, Caldey and Lundy. Flat-holm received its name from its comparatively flat surface, in like manner as Step-holm, or Steep-holm, from its bold shores and prominent

† For these islands see Borlase's Observations and Heath's Account.

face.



face. Caldey, on the coast of Pembrokeshire, is too inconsiderable to be more than barely mentioned. Lundy, distant fifteen miles from the coast of Lundy. Devonshire, of which it is politically a part; three miles long, but no where quite a mile broad; watered by four springs and as many rivulets; containing two thousand acres, and abounding in rabbits and black rats, rises from the sea with most formidable cliffs, some of which are by estimation eight hundred feet in altitude above the water, admitting safe landing only on the eastern side, and scarcely accessible, except by one path too narrow for more than two men to walk abreast. By the last accounts it was inhabited by only one family, but had been purchased by Sir John Borlace Warren, who intended to introduce culture and population. Near the southeast end are the ruins of a castle, which was held for Charles the First by Lord Say and Seale.

THE  
ISLANDS

ON THE  
WESTERN COAST OF WALES

CONSIST of Stokum, Skomar, Gresholm, and Ramfey, on the coast of Pembroke; and Bardfey and Anglesey on the coast of Carnarvon, together with a few others, particularly three near Anglesey, called Moyl-Rhoniad or Seal-Island, Ynis-Ligod, or Mouse-Island, and Priestholm or Priest-Island. These islands, except Anglesea, are all of diminutive size and otherwise unimportant. Some of the larger are used for pastures, and the smaller are frequented by vast flocks of sea-fowl. Moyl Rhoniad is said to contain a considerable quarry of asbestos †.

*Anglesea.* Anglesey, or Anglesea, twenty-five miles long, sixteen broad, and containing about two hundred thousand acres, lies parted from Carnarvonshire by the strait of Menai, or Menau, which is so narrow as to be denominated a river, in some places deep, but in others so shallow as to be fordable at low water. The island is indented by many inlets, several of which might by the aid of art be render-

† Woodward's History of Fossils, vol. ii. p. 103.

ed commodious harbors. Excepting some cliffs on the shores, and some gradual elevations, the surface is level, more elevated on the nor-eastern than the south-western side. Beside some smaller streams it is watered by twelve rivulets, in which number Kevenny, Alau, and Frau, may perhaps come within the rank of rivers.

The country, except where it borders the Menai, is almost destitute of wood: the common fuel, peat or turf: the corn, barley, oats, and rye: the soil so fertile, though not well cultivated, that the epithet of the nursery of Wales, which has been given to this island, is supposed to have arisen from that circumstance: the chief exports, corn, lean cattle, and copper. The quantity of corn exported is considerable for such a country, amounting, for instance, in the year 1770 to above ninety thousand bushels. About fifteen thousand neats, with a proportionable number of sheep and five thousand swine, are annually sold into Britain. On a hill called Pary's-Mountain is a bed of copper ore, one of the most considerable ever known, lodged in a hollow, with a lake on one side, the water of which is of a very disagreeable taste. In the working of this mine, which seems to have been known to the ancients, and which was re-opened in the year 1762, at least fifteen hundred workmen with their families are employed, amounting altogether to near eight thousand persons.

This island, which is politically a county of Wales, contains seventy-four parishes, above twenty thousand inhabitants, almost all Welch, and four market



market towns, and returns four members to parliament, one of whom is a knight of the shire, and the other a burghers for the borough of Beaumaris. This borough, founded, together with its castle, which is now in ruins, by Edward the First, the conqueror of Wales, in the year 1295, is the chief town of Anglesea, well built, surrounded with walls, and having the advantage of a good harbor near the southeast extremity of the island. In a peninsular tract, above a mile distant from the mountain of Holyhead, which resembles the Hill of Howth on the opposite coast of Ireland, is the village of Holyhead, remarkable for its port, where the Packet-boats take their station, which sail continually between Dublin and this harbor, carrying the mails, and accommodating passengers for half-a-guinea each for their conveyance across the Irish channel.

Anglesea, called Mona by the ancient Italians, by the ancient Britons and modern Welch Môn, or Tir-Mon, was the principal scene of Druidical worship, and abounded in consecrated groves, when it was conquered by the Romans in the year 59. Before its conquest, together with Wales, by the Anglo-Normans, it had received the appellation of Angles-Ey, or the Isle of Angles; but why, or exactly when, History gives no decisive information. It probably happened by a temporary conquest of the island by Egbert King of the West Saxons in 819.

§ Warrington's Wales, p. 125.

## M A N,

**REMARKABLE** for its central position among the British isles, stands nearly at equal distances between Britain and Ireland, and also at nearly equal distances from the coasts of Anglesea, Lancashire, and Galloway, which confine on three sides that portion of the Irish channel in which this island lies; being distant from each of these about seven leagues, and from Ireland nine. Of a narrow and indented shape, it stretches in length about thirty English miles, in breadth from nine to five, but in general eight, and may contain about a hundred and twenty thousand English acres. Perhaps the half of its surface, or even more, is occupied by bleak mountains, which form a chain, and divide the island longitudinally. The highest of these is the mountain called Scafell, Sneafeld, or Snawfeld, which, situate toward the north, and rising to the height of three hundred and eighty, or, according to other accounts ||, near six hundred yards, above the sea, commands at once a view of the Irish, Welch, English and Scottish coasts.

The mountains furnish a multitude of small streams to water the country, and abundance of turf for fuel. The face of the country, naked of trees, has no very inviting aspect. The soil of this island, more sandy and dry in the north, more fertile in the south, but no where much improved,

|| Account of Man in the Annual Register for 1765.

yields oats, barley, some wheat, and large quantities of potatoes. The cattle are small, but strong and hardy, particularly a breed of diminutive horses commonly called Manks Ponies, which graze in the mountainous tracts, where also run wild a particular sort of small swine called Purrs, and sheep too, a species of which, called Loughtan, yield wool of a buff color, whence a pretty cloth is made without any dye. Some hundred tuns of lead have been exported from this isle, but the chief object of exertion is the Herring Fishery, in which about four hundred boats, with from five to seven men in each, are annually employed \*. This fishery was formerly much more considerable, so that twenty thousand barrels of herrings were exported yearly to France †.

The inhabitants of Man, about twenty thousand in number, denominated Manks, or Manksmen, speak a dialect of the Erse or Irish tongue, though English also is understood among them, and seem to be the mixed posterity of the ancient Celtic Britons and Scandinavians. In their habit and manners they imitate the English, but some of the poorer sort still wear a kind of Sandal, called Kerranes, of untanned leather, laced from the toe to the instep, and gathered about the ankle.

Castletown, or Castle Rushin, with a beautiful old castle of freestone, situate in the south on a bad harbor, is accounted the capital of Man, as being the place of the governor's residence; but Douglas

\* Townley's Tour of Man.

† Bishop Wilson's Description of Man.



on the eastern side, with the safest harbor in the island for vessels of moderate size, is the largest and richest town. It contains also the port towns of Peel and Ramsey. The latter stands in the noreast, on a spacious bay, where fleets of the greatest ships may ride secure from all winds except the nor-easterly.

This island, called by the ancients *Mona*, *Monaceda*, *Monabia*, and *Menavia*, was, after being for a long series of ages possessed by different tribes of ancient Britons, seized by Scandinavian pirates, who in the tenth century erected it into a kingdom. It continued long an independent state, formidable by its naval force, under a race of Scandinavian princes, but became subject to the kingdom of Scotland about the year 1263, and was conquered by the English under Edward the First near forty years after. It became successively the property of several private possessors under the protection of the English crown, and sometimes that of Scotland, and was at length, by Henry the Fourth, in the year 1405, fixed in the possession of the Stanley's afterwards created Earls of Darby. It remained with this family till the year 1735, when it devolved by inheritance to the Duke of Athol, who, like his predecessors, held it by a feudal tenure under the British crown, and exercised regal jurisdiction within the island. But, the place becoming a nest of smugglers, the British parliament, in order to dislodge these illegal traders, purchased the island, with exception of some reservations, in the year 1765, for the sum of seventy thousand pounds ;  
since

since which time it is under the immediate government of the Crown, but the Duke still retains the landed property and ecclesiastical patronage, nor have the people relinquished their local customs in their laws and judicial proceedings.

Government.

The government and modes of administering justice in this island are not very complex. Two judges called Deemsters, because formerly what they *deemed* to be law passed as law, chosen for their knowledge and integrity, are sworn to act as impartially, or equally, between man and man, as the herring bone lies between the two sides. Twenty-four persons, called Keys, because, as is supposed, they, as it were, unlock the intricacies of the law, represent the commons, and compose, together with the Deemsters, the Governor, and the officers both spiritual and temporal, a court called Tingwald, which is held every year on Saint John Baptist's day, on an artificial hill three miles from Peel in the center of the island. This court, which sits in the open air, is at once a judicial and legislative assembly, receiving complaints in the face of the people, and passing acts, which, when they receive the royal assent, become laws.

When a vacancy happens among the Keys of the island, two persons chosen by that body are presented to the Governor, who nominates one of them to supply the vacancy. In all the courts almost all persons, male and female, plead their own causes; no attornies, until lately, having got footing in Man. Among the peculiar customs or laws of the Manks are these, that in failure of sons the eldest daughter

daughter inherits; that a wife, in the life of her husband, may dispose by will of half the goods of the family, except in the six northern parishes, where she can bequeath only a third of the live stock; that a widow inherits half her husband's real estate if she be his first wife, and a quarter if his second and third, but if she has the misfortune of a miscarriage, or marries again, she loses this right; and that, when a man is found guilty of a rape, the injured woman is presented with a rope, a sword, and a ring, by which she is understood to have the option of hanging, beheading, or marrying him.

The Manks are Protestants according to the doctrine of the church of England. As the island is politically distinguished into six divisions called Sheadings, so it is ecclesiastically divided into seventeen parishes, of which two are parsonages worth sixty pounds of annual revenue, the rest vicarages with an income of only twenty-five pounds yearly each, on which pittance the clergy of this island maintain their families in rustic simplicity, and behave in such manner, say some, as to be respected by their parishioners. As they generally officiate in the Manks language, they are mostly natives of Man. Their superintendent is a prelate stiled the bishop of Sodor † and Man, who is suffragan to the Arch-

† The title of Sodor seems to have originated from an islet on the western coast of Man, about a musket shot from the shore, formerly called Holm, Sodor, and Peel, in which are the ruins of an ancient cathedral. When the southern Hebrides became subject to this see, they also obtained the name of Sodor or Soderenses, or Soderos.



bishop of York, yet has no seat in the British parliament. He is appointed by the lord of the isle and approved by the King.

Calf of  
Man.

Of the few small isles on the coasts of Man the most considerable is called the Calf of Man, situate at the southern extremity of the island, and parted from it by a channel not half a mile broad. This isle, about three miles in circuit, is remarkable only for being, like some other unfrequented spots, the resort of Puffins, a kind of sea-bird, which burrows in the ground like rabbits, and whose body is all over a lump of fat.

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## I R E L A N D,

Site. IN magnitude the third of European islands, lies west of Britain, whence it is severed by the Irish sea, called also Saint George's Channel, which varies in breadth from forty to fourteen leagues, excepting where it is contracted into a breadth of only six between the county of Down and the coast of North-Britain, and into a still narrower dimension of scarcely four between the noreast point of the coast of Antrim and the Mull of Kintyre on the Scottish coast.

Figure,

Oblong and far more compact in its figure than Britain, but still irregular, it narrows from the middle

dle with various inequalities to the noreast and south-west; contracting suddenly in the former direction, and then somewhat dilating, so as to make in that quarter a kind of rounded peninsula; in some degree gibbous on the south-east, and of a serrated form on the south-west. Exposed all along the western side to the whole fury of the Atlantic, which swells to a tremendous height, and breaks with inconceivable violence on its shores, its coast is there more angled and indented than elsewhere, and is more bordered with islands, which seem to have been rent from the main by the irruptions of that boisterous element.

The chief inlets which pierce the Irish coasts are Inlets. on the west and south-west of the island. "Those indented coasts, which present innumerable promontories to the fury of the vast Atlantic, form in their deep recesses some of the noblest havens in the world, havens so secure and capacious, that in several of them the whole navy of Great Britain might ride in perfect safety §." The greatest of these noble inlets, which might, and, we hope, will in better times, be attended with vast commercial advantages, are the Bays of Bantry, Kenmare, Dingle, Galway, Clew, and Donegal.

Bantry-Bay, above twenty Irish miles long, from five to three broad, every where deep, in some places not less than forty fathoms, sheltered with high steep rocky shores, but quite safe, and clear of rocks in the channel, is the chief inlet of the great county

of Cork. Kenmare-Bay, commonly called Kenmare-River, is a Frith or Estuary, extending about twenty miles into the county of Kerry, with a breadth of three in some places, sheltered around with high mountains, and constituting one of the most secure and capacious havens in Europe. Dingle-Bay, in the same county, an inner gulf of which is called Castlemain-harbour, is much superior in breadth to the above, and not inferior in its other dimensions. Still greater is the bay of Galway; washing the shores of Clare and Galway counties, sheltered at its entrance by the three southern isles of Arran, and forming by its branches many safe havens. Clew, or Newport-Bay, extending, with a breadth of six or seven, about thirteen Irish miles into the county of Mayo, is a magnificent haven, affording safe and deep anchorage among innumerable islands at its bottom or inmost part, sheltered on the south and north by mountains, and on the west at its entrance by the high and rocky isle of Clare. Donegal-Bay, which washes the shores of Donegal and other counties, advances about twenty Irish miles into the land, and varies in breadth from about seventeen to seven.

On the northern side of the island, two fine inlets, in the dialect of the country denominated Loghs, advance into the land, separated each from the other by the mountainous peninsula of Innish-Owen. The more western, called Lough Swilly, "is a prodigious fine harbour, twenty miles long, from two to four broad, and deep enough for the largest



largest man of war ||." The more eastern, termed Lough Foyle, is a fine basin, " twelve miles long and seven broad, land-locked on all sides; the entrance not being above half a mile wide, but having only one deep channel in the middle between sands and shallows \*."

The eastern coast is much less indented, and approaches more nearly to a rectilinear figure, excepting its northern part in which are the inlets of Carrickfergus, Strangford, and Carlingford. The first, commonly called the Lough of Belfast, is a bay eleven miles long, and about four broad. The second, named Strangford-Lough, is a gulph about fifteen miles long, three or four broad, and interspersed with near two hundred islets. The third is a bay which constitutes a fine haven, about nine miles long, two or three broad, and twenty fathoms deep.

On the southern coast are no inlets of such a size as to bear comparison with those of the western. The greatest on this side is the harbor of Cork, which is a gulph about eight miles in length, five † in breadth in the widest part, occupied in a great part of its area by islands, and so formed as to be capable of containing an immense multitude of ships in perfect security; whilst its shores around, adorned with villas and plantations, present a most agreeable and chearful landscape. Many other inlets on

|| Beaufort, p. 30.

\* Beaufort, p. 26.

† I have reckoned only by Irish miles in the accounts of any of the inlets.

the coasts of this island might be named, which are, or might easily be rendered, commodious for the reception of shipping.

Projections.

Of the projections of this island, which are by far the greatest and most numerous toward the west, very few require to be distinguished by any particular notice above the others. The peninsula of Corcaguinny in the county of Kerry, full of mountains and crossed at its isthmus by a mountain, is mentioned here, because it terminates in Dunmore head, the most western point of Ireland, and, if we except some small islands, of all Europe. The Mullet in the county of Mayo, fertile and well inhabited, is the most peninsulated projection of Ireland, connected with the main by an extremely narrow isthmus, and itself divided into two peninsulas. Innish-Owen in the county of Donegal is a peninsula formed by Lough Swilly and Lough Foyle, wild, rough, and mountainous, but with so low and level an isthmus, three miles broad, that a very advantageous communication might with very little expence be formed between these inlets †. The promontory of Bengore on the northern coast of the county of Antrim is remarkable, not for its magnitude, but for the matter which it furnishes to natural history, as it contains the Giant's Causeway, a phenomenon formerly thought singular, but now well known to be only one, yet still one of the most

† This communication would have been carried into effect, if the scheme had not been opposed from some narrow private self-interested views.

perfect, of those many collections of Basaltic pillars which are to be seen in various parts of the globe, and which are most probably the production of volcanic fire.

Bengore is rather an assemblage of lofty, steep, The and most beautiful promontories, than a single head- Giant's land. At the base of one of these, which rises in Causeway. the west of the assemblage to the height of five or six hundred feet, lies the Giant's Causeway, projecting into the ocean in the form of a mole or quay, and in appearance not much unlike a solid honeycomb, above six hundred feet in length at low water, from about two hundred and forty to a hundred and twenty feet in breadth, and from fifteen to thirty-six in height. It is composed of many thousands of Basaltic pillars, ponderous and of a dark-brown color, standing in a position perpendicular to the horizon, and in so close a contact one with another as to leave no void spaces, "the surface of the Causeway exhibiting to view a regular and compact pavement of Polygon stones."

The pillars are all of an irregular prismatic figure, the thickness of each, which is from fifteen to twenty inches, being the same throughout, and the sides of unequal breadths, varying in number from four to eight; but the columns of a hexagonal form are by far the most numerous. They are commonly about thirty feet in length, and "are separable into many joints, whose articulation is neat and compact beyond expression, the convex termination of one joint always meeting a concave socket in the next," to which it is exactly fitted.



## THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

This Causeway, however, so justly admired, is but a small corner, accidentally laid bare by the waves, of a vast quarry of Basaltes extending far and wide in the land and sea; its traces being discovered far in the county of Antrim, in the island of Raghery, and in the islands of Mull, Staffa, Cannay, and others among the Hebrides\*.

Plan of  
the soil.

In a vast moor, morafs, or turf-bog, named the Bog of Allen, which has a position not far from central, occupying, beside other ramifications, large tracts in the King's County, Kildare, and Roscommon, the plan of the soil in Ireland has its greatest elevation, an elevation hardly exceeding two hundred and seventy feet†, yet more than sufficient to give descent to the greatest rivers of the island. Through this vast bog, which is apparently level, runs the main spine of the island, separating the waters of the Shannon from those which flow eastward to the Irish channel, and southward to the shores of Munster and the ocean. This ridge or spine, which is not every where observable by the eye, but can easily be geographically traced, winds on one side northward to the mountains of Tyrone, and on the other southward to the mountains of Slyeeve‡-Bloom and the Galtees, whence it runs

\* The best account of this Causeway is in Letters on the coast of Antrim by the Rev. William Hamilton, A. M. F. T. C. D.

† This is found by the Surveys of the Grand Canal.

‡ The word Slyeeve is here written as those who speak Irish pronounce it; the y being sounded as in *ye* or *yet*, and the *e* at the end being mute.

westward to the peninsula of Corcaguinny. Another spine, connected with a winding branch of the former between the waters of Lough Ern and Lough Allen; runs southward between the great river Shannon on one side, and the lakes of Conn, Mask, and Corrib, on the other, through that western part of the island, which is divided from the rest in the manner of a peninsula by the above named great river.

Ireland founded on an immense rock or bed of General granite, which rises from the bosom of the deep, <sup>face.</sup> has no such extensive tracts of mountains as Britain, nor any such low fenny flats as that island; nor has she any hills of chalk, nor, excepting the shores, large tracts of sand; but a soil more commonly of a gravelly nature, with a substratum of stone mostly calcareous, interspersed with argillaceous, ferrugineous, and other kinds of matter. The rock or stone, which forms the substratum, rises very frequently naked to the view, almost continually meeting the eye of the traveller, not only on the eminences, but also in the plains. Such rocks are in many places very numerous without any considerable elevation of the ground, as, for instance, in the county of Cork, where, north of Dunmanway, they form a perfect mound or wall of great extent, and, west of Macroom, they astonish the imagination with a grandeur in nature, spots of fine verdure being interspersed among the rocks, which are white and of a most romantic appearance, striking the eye with the resemblance of

lofty towers, ruined churches, and other fantastic forms §.

In the county of Mayo, in the flat country which borders the lakes of Mask and Corrib, is a tract of rocky ground many miles in extent, which at a distance appears "like one immense sheet of white stone: but on a nearer inspection of these singular rocks, they are found to stand in parallel lines, from one to three feet above the surface, like flag-stones pitched in the ground upon their edges; and, however they may vary in shape, size, and distance, they are all calcareous, and have all the same direction. Fissures of a great depth are found in some of the narrowest interstices, but in general the verdure between them is beautiful, and the pasture excellent for sheep ||."

Collectively viewed, Ireland is not mountainous: Many parts are level, some quite flat, and many are uneven with hills of no great magnitude. The most extensive levels are about the middle of the island, where a vast plain stretches quite across from sea to sea, from the coast of Dublin to the bay of Galway, including in its extent the Bog of Allen. In general the maritime parts, particularly the western, are more mountainous than the interior; yet the mountains are so distributed that we find few places "in which the prospect is not somewhere terminated by this species of majestic scenery, forming a background seldom more remote than twenty miles \*."

§ See Smith's History of Cork.

|| Beaufort's Memoir, p. 75.

\* Beaufort's Memoir, p. 10.



Such in fact is their distribution, and such are the prospects which they afford, over extensive plains or waving surfaces, lakes of various extent, and fine streams of water gliding through the most beautifully verdant lands, as if nature had intended this island for a region of landscape, and a lavish variety of charming scenes. Here are few dead unvaried flats, whose dull uniformity fatigues the view; nor are the eminences commonly other than such as serve to create a pleasing variety in the prospect, or add majesty to the show.

But though nature has amply performed her part in beautifying the face of this island by an advantageous distribution of mountains, plains, and gentle undulations, admirably fine pieces of water, and a deep verdure which unfadingly clothes even the rocks in many places by reason of the great humidity and mild temperature of the air, art has as yet done but little, in comparison, to heighten these advantages: it has even performed a quite contrary part in destroying the noble woods, which once contributed highly to the beauty of the country. By far the greater part of the island, destitute of trees, presents a naked aspect, and is in no great degree improved by culture. This is unfortunately most the case where the lands are by nature most fertile; such being commonly consigned to pasturage. Large tracts in the south and west, the natural fecundity of whose soil is such as avidity itself might wish, seem almost abdicated by the human species, and occupied by cattle.

From

From the eminences which overlook such tracts the prospect is not of the most agreeable kind; no hedge-rows nor hedges, no marks of culture except patches of potatoes the support of the miserable cottagers, few seats of gentry, and hardly any other habitations than those of the indigent herdsman, "whose sordid hovels serve only to cast a deeper shade on the gloom of depopulation†." In some places also, as in large parts of the counties of Mayo, Galway, Roscommon, and Clare, walls of dry-stone, inclosing the fields instead of ditches, give the country a dreary aspect.

These uncomfortable prospects are not at all universal. The cheerful face of culture gladdens the eye in many parts of the country, more especially toward the east. Here and there also woods or plantations appear, and art unites with nature to form a scenery truly delightful. No part of the island exhibits more engaging views of this kind than some northern districts, particularly in the counties of Down and Armagh. Much of the latter is well planted, and in the former, especially about the rivers Bann and Laggan, "an irregularity of ground, well watered, abounding in bleach-greens, and full of neat and cleanly habitations, with an orchard to almost every cottage, affords a most cheerful prospect of the comfort and opulence of the inhabitants, who are mostly employed in the linen business‡." But, when we speak of Ireland

† Philosophical Survey of the South of Ireland,

‡ Beaufort, p. 20.

in general, it must be allowed, that however cultivated and adorned with villas many parts of it may be, hedge-rows and those other ornaments of plantation are scarce, which add so vastly to the beauty of South-Britain.

Numerous turf-bogs also, or, as they are denominated by the northern Irish as well as by the northern Britons, Mosses, not only in the interstices and on the sides and summits of mountains, but also in the plains, tend in some degree to deform the aspect of the country in many places, and, as it were, to darken its complexion. Many of these are capable of being converted by industry into excellent ground, and, where they occupy not too great a proportion of the land, they compensate for their russet or sable hues by the abundance of fuel which they yield. Nor are morasses of this kind pernicious to the health of man. “The bog-waters, far from emitting putrid exhalations, like stagnant pools and marshes, are of an antiseptic and strongly astringent quality; as appears from their preserving for ages, and even adding to the durability of the timber, which we find universally buried beneath their surfaces; and from their converting to a sort of leather the skins of men and animals, who have had the misfortune of being lost, and of remaining in them for any length of time §.” The most extensive by far of all these bogs is that of Allen already mentioned, which, notwithstanding that it has been much diminished by the reclaiming of a great

§ See in this vol. p. 26.



portion of it, has even yet a length of seventy miles, expanding in the counties of Kildare, Roscommon, and King's county, and branching into Queen's county, Westmeath and Meath.

Bogs in Ireland, in like manner as in Britain ||, have sometimes burst and overflowed the neighbouring low grounds with their miry matter. One instance, among others which might be adduced, is that of the small bog of Addergoole in the county of Galway, which in the beginning of April in the year 1745, flowed from its place after the fall of an immense shower of rain, or rather water-spout, and beside ruining some fine lands, stopped the course of a neighbouring river, and thereby formed a lake, which subsists at this day, occupying a space of fifty or sixty acres.

Mountains.

The mountains of Ireland are variously arranged ; some insulated by surrounding plains or vallies, some extended in ranges, but most of them collected in irregular groups, or in unconnected masses of different magnitudes. They have a great variety of forms, and no less various acclivity ; in general of easy ascent, affording pasturage, and even admitting culture, far above their bases ; but some are also of precipitous aspect, and some of considerable height, towering aloft in the form of cones, or piercing the clouds with spiral summits. No mountains, however, of this island can be said to be of great altitude ; the highest being inferior in elevation to the peak of Snowdon, which is itself surpassed by seve-

|| See in this vol. p. 26.

ral others in Britain. I shall notice some principal groups; but the best idea of the arrangement and distribution of the Irish mountains is to be acquired by the inspection of Beaufort's Map.

The only ridge of mountains of great length, which we find in this kingdom, is one which extends quite across the southern part of the island, in a length of above ninety Irish, or near a hundred and twenty English miles, from Helwick-head at the bay of Dungarvan through the counties of Waterford, Cork, and Kerry, to the Ocean, with various heights and a great gap through which the river Blackwater flows, bearing in its way the names of Drum-Fineen, Nagle-mountains, the Bogra, and other appellations. From the other side of Dungarvan-bay to the vicinity of Clonmell on the river Suir, extends, through the county of Waterford, in a length of about thirteen Irish miles, a group of mountains, called the Cummeraghs, whose ridges are directed from east to west, though the chain stretches from south to north; which inclose many horrid precipices, form a number of lakes in their hollows, and rise in the highest part near the middle of the range to the elevation of between six and seven hundred yards above the level of the ocean \*. Not far to the west of this group in the same county is the lofty ridge of Knockmeledown, least steep on the western side, most precipitous on the northern, making a coniform appearance above, and ending

\* Smith in his History of Waterford says seven hundred and twenty yards, but I much doubt the accuracy of his mensuration.

at top in a sharp ridge of loose stones covered with heath, elevated probably eight hundred yards above the same level.

At no great distance nor-westward from the last named mountain stands the noble range of the Galtees, extending eastward and westward about twenty miles, bordering the counties of Cork and Limerick, and advancing into that of Tipperary, dreadfully precipitous in many places, and rising, ridge above ridge, with variously pointed summits, to a stupendous but as yet unmeasured height. The county of Kerry, especially its projecting coasts, is over-run with mountains. A dreary chain of these, which borders the county of Cork, between the bays of Bantry and Kenmare, is almost impervious, having only one pass, and that very difficult, called the Priest's Leap. This chain is almost connected with a formidable mass of mountains assembled about Lough Lane, quite enclosing the upper lake, and half surrounding the lower. Of these Mangerton, which towers to the altitude of eight hundred and thirty yards above the sea, is reputed the highest; but the Reeks, whose sharp acuminate summits are conspicuous in this awful group, may possibly be somewhat higher †.

The high and steep mountains of Slyeeve-Bloom, called also Ard-na-Erin, or the height of Ireland, have probably the most elevated bases of all

† In Wilson's Post Chaise Companion their altitude is said to be eleven hundred and twenty yards; but this appears to be without authority and quite erroneous.



the Irish mountains, and, extending toward the noreast and southwest, form an almost impracticable barrier between the King's and Queen's counties, admitting in a length of fourteen miles only one pass called the Gap of Glandine, which is narrow and difficult. This range, including Ben-Dhu in the county of Tipperary, which is near in the same direction, and connected by elevated grounds, extends above twenty Irish miles.

The mountains of Wicklow form a wide irregular group, which with their bases and ramifications occupy the greater part of the county, and render its interior a dreary waste of bogs and rocks; but bordered with some very beautiful vales, and affording at a distance fine picturesque views. Lugna-Culyay toward the borders of Carlow appears to be the highest of this group. Caid-Yeen, seated near it, is also of conspicuous altitude. The mountains of Kippure, in the north of this wild assemblage, are also high, and remarkably abrupt on the northern side. The Sugar-loaf-hill on the east near the sea is distinguished by its rocky conical summit. A slender concatenation of the Wicklow-mountains extends, with the interruption of some narrow valleys, to a ridge in the county of Wexford with three summits, the highest of which, called Slyeeve-Bwee, is a most beautiful, regular, and verdant cone, forming a fine object to the eye at a great distance around. The valley of the river Slaney separates the ridge of Slyeeve-Bwee from one of far greater magnitude, which is composed of the high mountains of Mount Linster and Blackstairs. From  
the

the great bulk of Mount Linster a concatenation of wild eminences advances toward the south, but with the interruption of valleys, particularly that of the River Barrow, into the south-eastern part of the county of Kilkenny.

Through a space of near fifty Irish miles, the country is quite destitute of mountains from the group of Wicklow northward to the mountains of Carlingford, which range along the southern side of that bay, extending northward to Slyeeve-Gulyan and the Fews in the county of Armagh. The bay of Carlingford forms a great watery gap between these and the lofty range of Mourne or Moarn, in the county of Down, the highest of which is Slyeeve-Donard, called also mount Malby, whose elevation may probably be between nine hundred and a thousand yards above the subjacent sea †. Northward of these, and almost in continuation with them, are those of Slyeeve-Croob, which form a high rugged ridge in the same county.

The county of Antrim is much incumbered with mountains, the two principal of which are Knock-Laid in the north, and Slenish or Slaynish, near the middle. Some mountainous masses extend in the counties of Tyrone and Derry in such manner as, excepting the discontinuation occasioned by valleys, to form a considerable range. One of these

† In the ancient and present state of the county of Down its altitude is said to be a thousand and fifty-six yards; but the simple barometrical mensuration, by which this altitude was found, is liable to error, nor is it certain that proper care was taken in making the observations.

is Slyeeve-Gallen, which appears a huge rounded lump. Another is Carntogher, which is a long high and craggy ridge or concâtenation of ridges. The county of Donegal is in a great proportion overspread with mountains, of which one called Muckish seems at a distance somewhat like a haystack; and a large group, elsewhere impassable, has in it a long opening or gap, named the pass of Barnsmore.

Between Lough Erne and Lough Allen are several masses or knots of mountains, as those of Slyeeve-an-Yeerin, Slyeeve-Ruffel, and Ballyna-geeragh. The Curlews extend to Lough Arrow between the counties of Roscommon and Sligo.

In the counties of Mayo and Galway, where a broad projecting tract, not unlike Wales in its prominent figure and rugged face, advances, as it were, to oppose the fury of the ocean, many gloomy masses of mountain darken the aspect of the land, and render some parts almost impracticable to the traveller. Two of supereminent majesty, Nephin and Croagh-Patrick, both in Mayo, rear their lofty heads, the former to the altitude of eight hundred and eighty yards, the latter eight hundred and eighty-eight, above the level of the sea. Nephin stands almost insulated, and is rounded on the sides and at top so as to resemble an immense artificial pile or barrow. Croagh-Patrick is a vast ridge, the summit of which appears to the eye a monstrous cone, perfectly regular, and is discernible at the distance of sixty miles.

This



Rivers

and lakes.

This kingdom is not less diversified with lakes and rivers than with hills and mountains. Of all the British Islands, which in general so abound in water, none is more copiously supplied with that element than Ireland. The earth, as the air, is replete with moisture. Springs are seen bursting from the ground in every quarter, and the country is intersected in all directions by a multitude of rivers; many of which meet in their course with such hollows or depressions of the earth as, when filled with their waters, become lakes. Of lakes Ireland contains a considerable number, especially in the west and north, some of which are in magnitude inferior to few in Europe, after those which lie in the vicinity of the Alps and of the Baltic sea. The lakes contribute much to beautify the country, and still more the rivers, as the finest and most fertile grounds are commonly situate on their banks; but by reason of the rocky channels in which they flow, few of them are navigable without interruption through any great length of course. Such impediments, however, might generally be removed, and an extensive inland navigation formed, to the vast emolument of the kingdom.

The Boyne, rising from several springs in the Bog of Allen, runs nor-eastward to the Irish Channel, and falls into the harbour of Drogheda after a course of above fifty miles, about twenty miles of which will shortly be rendered navigable as far as the town of Navan, the works for that purpose being prosecuted with vigour.

The

The Liffey, or Anna-Liffey, springs from the Wicklow mountains, and runs to the bay of Dublin, making a circuitous course of above sixty English miles, while the distance from its fountain to its mouth is less than twenty. It carries no great body of water, and is navigable by boats but a few miles above Dublin. At Leixlip, seven miles from the capital, it forms a cataract. Near Ballymore-Eustace also its stream parted into three by a rock forms a cataract about ten feet in height; and about a mile higher are the falls of Powl-na-fooca, where the river, pent between tremendously high and steep banks, forms three successive falls, one immediately below another, the lowest of which is the greatest, seemingly about twenty feet high. From the Wicklow mountains also rise the Ovoca and the Slaney, not far from the springs of the Liffey, but with a quite different direction; the former flowing south-eastward to Arklow in a course of near thirty English miles; the latter in nearly the same direction to the harbour of Wexford, near sixty such miles, navigable by boats as high as Enniscorthy above fourteen miles.

From the elevated tract of country, in which are the Bog of Allen and the Ridge of Slyeeve-Bloom, arise three noble rivers, called the Three Sisters, the Barrow, the Nore, and the Suir or Shoor; the first deriving its original streams from the bog, the second from the main ridge of the above mountains, and the third from the black eminences of Ben-dhu or Banduff. These three rivers, thus rising, as it were, together, deflect considerably one from

from another, and afterwards, gradually approaching, conjoin their streams, and pour their united floods into the harbour of Waterford. The Nore and Barrow first unite at the town of New-Ross, whence the combined stream, navigable by large vessels, is called the River of Ross; and nine miles lower is the influx of the Suir. The course of the Barrow, including its flexures, may be estimated at eighty English miles, to its conflux with the Nore, navigable by boats to the town of Athy §, near sixty from the sea: that of the Nore about sixty, navigable to Bennet's Bridge, twenty miles above the conflux; and that of the placid and majestic Suir above ninety, navigable above twenty miles by sloops of considerable burden to the town of Carrick, and by large boats above thirty to Clonmell.

Many rivers, each bearing the name of Blackwater, are found in Ireland, but the greatest of these is that which was formerly called Avonmore. This originating from the mountains of Slyeeve-Logher in Kerry on the borders of Limerick, and taking first an easterly, afterwards a southerly direction, falls into the harbour of Youghal after a course of eighty miles, navigable by large vessels to Cappoquin twelve miles from its mouth, and by small boats much higher. The Lee, rising from some springs in the mountains between the counties of Cork and Kerry, forms a most romantic lake,

§ I have accented this name on account of my readers in England, who are apt to pronounce it *Āthy* as if the accent were to be thrown on the former syllable.



three miles long; called Allua, which is so inclosed by a wall of mountains as to have no other exit than a tremendous chasm; whence the river rushes with a violent stream to Cork-harbour; the whole length of its course being forty miles. The Bandon, issuing from the Sheehy mountains near Bantry-bay, runs a course of above thirty miles to the harbour of Kinsale, navigable by large sloops as high as Innishonan ten miles from its mouth, between beautifully wooded and winding banks.

The Shannon, by which and the Ern a great portion of Ireland in the west is peninsulated, nearly in like manner as a similar tract in the west of Britain is by the Severn and the Dee, is by much the greatest river not only of Ireland, but of all the British islands. It draws its original waters from Slyeeve-an-Yeerin and other groups of mountains, which spread through the north of the county of Leitrim and the adjacent parts, where is formed by concentrated waters a small lake called Lough Clean, commonly regarded as the prime source of this great and majestic stream. The redundant waters of this little lake are received in a far larger basin four miles lower called Lough Allen, eight miles long, two and a half broad, and of a considerable depth, whence, as from its great and immediate source, the river is disgorged in a most magnificent flood, and rolls superbly a hundred and fifty miles to the ocean, spreading wide like a sea in several places, and forming lakes of no contemptible size; one of which, named Lough Rhee or the Royal Lake, is fifteen miles in length, filled with

beautifully wooded islands. Another is formed at the junction of the river Fergus with the Shannon, where the expanse of water is ten miles broad interspersed with islands. In fact, the lower part of the Shannon, from a little below the city of Limerick to the ocean, may be considered as one great lake above forty miles in length, and from one to five and upwards in breadth. This noble river would be navigable from its mouth to Lough Allen, were it not for some obstructions, which probably will be in time completely removed or avoided, as some have been already, inasmuch that vessels of twenty tons already sail fifty or sixty miles above the great obstruction at Killaloe, where a ridge of rocks crosses the channel.

Among the tributary streams of this great river is the Suck, whose course may be estimated at sixty English miles. Two others are the Inny and Brosna, which run forty or fifty miles each, and completely insulate the ground between them and the Shannon; for from Lough Hoyle in the county of Westmeath, whence the Brosna flows, a rapid stream runs westward through Lough Iron to the Inny.

The river Ern, issuing from a small lake, called Lough Gawnah in the county of Longford, runs about eighty English miles, forming in its course in the county of Fermanagh the famous Lough Ern, which consists of two lakes connected by a winding channel six miles long. Both lakes are interspersed with islands to the number of three or four hundred, many of which are clothed with woods, some of a consider-

considerable size and enlivened with the habitations of men; all forming with the surrounding coasts a beautiful and constantly varying scenery. The upper lake is above ten English miles in length, and from near two to seven broad. From the lower, which expands from two to ten in breadth and to thirteen in length, a rapid stream, the termination of this river, runs nine miles to the bay of Donegal, and after many successive falls over ledges of rock, is at length precipitated near the town of Ballyshannon in a cataract, which even by those who have seen greater is accounted a fine object.

The beautiful rivers Mourne and Fin, uniting near Strabane in the county of Tyrone, roll thence with a combined navigable stream called the Foyle near twenty miles to Lough Foyle; but the whole course of this river from its prime fountain to its influx may be estimated at near fifty miles.

Several streams in Ireland bear the denomination of Bann, as, for instance, one in the county of Wexford which falls into the Slaney; but the greatest is that which springs from the mountains of Mourne in the county of Down, and runs northward a course of eighty English miles to the ocean, forming in its progress the celebrated Lough Neagh ||, the greatest of the Irish lakes. The lower Bann, which is the only outlet of the vast collection of waters in the lake, is broad and rapid, and is na-

|| This is pronounced *Nay*, except by those who chuse to pronounce it in the old Irish manner, in which it has the sound of *Nyee-agh*.



vigable by vessels of above thirty tuns burden, except where the stream is obstructed, as near Colerain, where the rocks cause a small cataract.

Lough Neagh expands to the length of about eighteen English miles and the breadth of near nine, occupying an area of near sixty thousand Irish, or above ninety thousand English acres\*. The level of the lake is thirty eight feet higher than that of the sea, and it is navigable by ships of considerable size. This great expanse of water is in a distant view a noble object, but is not comparable in beauty to other lakes of Ireland. "The shores are mostly formed either by an inanimate strand, or marshy borders liable to frequent floods; and are of course deficient in those varied banks and bold promontories, without which such extensive sheets of water cannot have a picturesque effect, unless when the uniformity is broken by frequent islands of different size and character: but there are only two in this lake; a very small one near the mouth of the Blackwater, and Ram-Island, within a short distance of the Antrim shore, remarkable only for an ancient round tower. The views are more pleasing in Lough Beg, a small lake into which these waters again expand, after a course of about a mile through a very

\* The waters of Lough Neagh have long been celebrated for a petrifying and a fanative quality. The former is suspected to belong rather to the soil of its shores, particularly the eastern. The latter seems doubtful, and may have been inferred from the good effects of cold bathing, which might have been experienced on equal trial in other waters.

contracted channel †." Lough Beg, which is a lower and far smaller basin filled by the waters of the Bann, has three islets, and an isle of a larger size, called Church-Island, in which are the ruins of an ancient religious building.

Others rivers of Ireland might be noticed, as the Guibarra in the county of Donegal, remarkable for the extraordinary breadth and depth of its stream, in proportion to its length, which is but twenty Irish miles; the Moy, which carries the redundant waters of Lough Calt and Lough Conn in a broad stream to the bay of Killalla; and the Mang, which falls into Castlemain harbour, and is navigable as far as the town of that name. Many lakes might also be noticed. Lough Conn at the foot of mount Nephin is nine Irish miles in length. Lough Mask is longer by two miles and considerably broader. Lough Corrib, in the county of Galway, not far from the last named, of dangerous navigation by reason of its concealed rocks, is somewhat like Lough Ern in its form, twenty miles long and eleven broad, but contracted in the middle to a small channel, and discharging its redundant waters by a broad stony channel into the bay of Galway.

Lough Lane, or Laun, in the county of Kerry, Lough commonly called the Lake of Killarney, though <sup>Lane.</sup> not to be numbered among the greater lakes, is yet, on account of its singular beauties, the most celebrated of all. It consists of two lakes, the lower on the north, and the upper on the south, connected

† Beaufort, p. 29.

by a river, or an inconceivably romantic defile of water, three miles in length, winding among rocks in the most perplexed and intricate mazes. The river Fleck, which rises from the mountains between Cork and Kerry, enters the eastern side of the lower lake, and issuing again from its north-western angle, under the name of the Laun, falls into the bay of Dingle after a course of above thirty English miles from its fountain. The lower lake, above four Irish miles long, and half as broad, is divided into two very unequal parts by a long tongue of land called Muckrus, which projects into it from the east. The upper lake is above three miles long and half a mile broad. The areas of both together may amount to near six thousand acres; and their depths are very considerable, particularly that of the upper.

Excepting the eastern and northern sides of the lower lake, where is a level country with the town of Killarney, this whole collection of water, especially the upper lake, is inclosed with a most sublime amphitheatre of mountains, which in many places awfully impend over the lakes, and pour into them from their sides a number of cascades, or cataracts. One of these cascades falls from a hole called the Devil's Punch Bowl in the western side of the vast mountain of Mangerton. Both lakes are spangled with islands, which are mostly vast blocks of marble fantastically figured; one resembling a horse in a drinking posture, and some in the upper lake appearing like lofty towers, or old stately palaces, tottering to their fall.

Most



Most of the islands, and the mountains all around for at least a fourth of their acclivities, are covered with woods, consisting of ever greens in a great proportion. The roots of the trees are often seen extended along the bare marble without any appearance of earth to sustain them. Among these the *Arbutus* predominates, bearing white blossoms, with green, yellow, and red berries, all at the same time; which with the tints of the different trees, and the rocks which are every where intermixed with them, form an infinite variety of fine coloring. Winter is the season when the *Arbutus* wears its gayest livery, at which time also the foaming cataracts appear in all their majesty. Echoes, which in all such mountainous chasms are curious, are here quite astonishing. A single sound is re-echoed by fifteen distinct repercussions with considerable intervals between them. The echoes reverberated to the report of a cannon at first resemble loud peals of thunder, and afterwards die away like volleys of musquetry.

These glassy lakes, thus overlooked by stupendous mountains; bordered with pendent woods the most delightfully variegated, and other fine objects whose images are reflected by the waters; ornamented with the most romantic verdant islands; resounding on all sides with waterfalls and the reverberations of a vast variety of echoes, combine an assemblage of beauties, perhaps unparalleled, at least far surpassing all power of language to express.

Beside the few waterfalls already mentioned at the above lake and elsewhere, many more might be <sup>Water-</sup>falls.  
noticed

noticed in Ireland, but very few of any considerable magnitude. At Ballyfadere in the county of Sligo, the river Arrow, which runs from a large lake of that name, is precipitated in a stupendous fall into the harbour of Ardnaglas. In the county of Derry the river Faughan makes a fall of no great height, but combining with the scenery about it to form a very beautiful landscape. At Powerscourt in the county of Wicklow a stream of no great magnitude, which afterwards by the junction of others forms the river of Bray, falls down a rock in a lofty, grand, and beautiful cataract, well known as lying in the neighbourhood of the capital, its distance from Dublin being but about eleven miles.

The greatest cataract in Ireland is that of Adra-gool in the bay of Bantry, where stands a rocky mountain of almost perpendicular ascent, called Hungry Hill, supposed to be elevated near seven hundred yards above the strand, and containing on its top a lake of considerable size, from the side of which issues a sheet of water, at first thirty feet wide, but gradually expanding as it descends. When it arrives about the middle of the mountain's steep declivity, it is dashed with a tremendous fall on a prominent rock, whence arise mists which reflect all the colors of the rainbow. Thence it is precipitated from rock, to rock, forming a series of cataracts to the foot of the mountain, and is afterwards thrown in a cascade in form of an arch over a lower hill into the sea, making altogether a glorious object, visible at the town of Bantry at the distance of fourteen English miles.

To

To avoid the obstructions of inland navigation Canals. occasioned by cataracts and other impediments in the beds of rivers, and to open a communication among the principal streams, a great number of canals is required; but very little of this great requisite is as yet executed or even planned, though much is in prospect. By the canal of Newry, long ago finished, the bay of Carlingford communicates with Lough Neagh; and by that of Liffey, more lately executed at the expence of the Marquis of Belfast, a navigation is opened between the same great lake and the bay of Carrickfergus. Some other works of this kind are in contemplation, but the two greatest which have as yet been planned or attempted are the Grand Canal and the Royal Canal, begun at Dublin on opposite sides of the river Liffey, and intended to be carried quite to the Shannon, so as to form a navigation across the island from the Irish channel to the ocean. The Grand Canal, which lies on the southern side, carries the navigation above forty miles to the river Barrow; and a branch of it, yet unfinished, is proceeding in another direction to the Shannon. The Royal Canal on the northern side, which has been but lately begun, is also to extend to that vast river, and by a collateral cut to communicate with the river Boyne.

Of the innumerable springs of water, which serve Sanative waters. to supply the rivers and lakes of Ireland, many are of a medicinal nature; but of these very few have as yet become celebrated, and still fewer are furnished with proper accommodations for strangers.

At



At Ballyspellin in the county of Kilkenny is a fine chalybeate spring. Another is at Castle-Connel on the Shannon, about six miles north of Limerick, which has been found to possess the same qualities as the Pouhohn spring at Spa, and where the accommodations, enhanced by a charming situation, are by no means despicable. Near Tralee in the county of Kerry is another, the application of which has been found successful, and another is near Gorey in the county of Wexford, called the Well of Tubberneering.

The sulphureous fountains of Swanlinbar in the county of Cavan are justly celebrated and much frequented. Similar to the water of Swanlinbar, but stronger, is that of Lucan in the county of Dublin, strongly impregnated with sulphur and alkaline salt, in taste resembling a semiputrid egg, in smell the washings of a foul gun, and efficacious in the cure of cutaneous, scrophulous, and other disorders. In smell and taste it is not unlike the waters of Aix-la-Chapelle. The well of Lucan, which was discovered in the year 1758, lies six miles west of Dublin, on the brink of the river Liffey, contains above eighty gallons of water, and, when emptied, becomes full again in the space of an hour\*. The tepid water of Mallow in the county of Cork is long celebrated, and, excepting that it is of a softer nature, resembles that of Bristol in almost every particular. The fountain, whence it issues, bubbles upward with a perpendicular stream, discharg-

\* Rutton's Natural History of Dublin. vol. ii. p. 189—236.  
ing

ing about twenty gallons in the space of a minute. It is situate at the bottom of a limestone hill which defends it on the northern side, southward of the town of Mallow, and on the north of the river Blackwater †.

The immense foundation of rock, which constitutes the basis of this island, favors the ingulph-  
ed waters. of waters, and the flowing of subterranean streams. Of this few instances are necessary. In the county of Cork a river called the Dowr dips and runs under ground near half a mile, bursting again to the light from a rock of limestone about a mile south-east of Castlemartyr †. The river Fergus and several others in the county of Clare dip in like manner in some part of their course. In the same county, and in those of Galway and Mayo, are many of what in Irish are called Turlaghs. "These are plains, some of them very extensive, which having no visible communication with any brooks or rivers, in the winter are covered with water, and become in the summer a rich and firm pasturage, the waters rising and retiring through rocky clefts in the bottoms §." The communicating lakes of Mask and Carrah have no visible outlet; but between the former and Lough Corrib, behind the small village of Cong, a very broad river bursts at once to the day from beneath a gently sloping bank, and runs a rapid course of about a mile to Lough Corrib,

† Smyth's History of Cork.

‡ Smyth's Cork, vol. i. p. 128.

§ Beaufort, p. 75.

being

being doubtless the effluent stream of a subterranean channel by which the superabundant water of these lakes is discharged. The Blackriver on the borders of Mayo and Galway dips for about three miles near the village of Shrile. In the latter county "the Clare and the Moyne unite their waters under ground, alternately appearing and retiring from view in the Turlaghmore, which in winter forms a lake, and in summer a beautiful and sound sheep-walk, upwards of six miles in length and two in breadth. Near Gort are a vast number of these swallows, in which some part of almost every river and brook in the neighbourhood is ingulphed. The river Gurtnamakin dips several times, and, after a concealed course of two miles, rises on the beach below high-water mark, and discharges itself among the rocks in the bay of Kinvarra §."

## Caverns.

Many caverns, beside those which are always, or occasionally, filled with water, might be instanced in Ireland, but of such instances three or four may be sufficient. In the side of the mountain of Kishcorran in the county of Sligo, about the middle of its ascent, are six caverns, the sides of which are covered with a smooth white substance like plaister. They all become so narrow at the distance of eighty or ninety feet from their entrances, that a man cannot safely pass farther. The entrance of the largest is a kind of circular hall, about thirty feet high, and as many in diameter; the floor an even rock, and the top somewhat like a dome\*. In the parish

§ Beaufort, p. 80.

\* M. S. penes me.



of White Church between Dungarvan and Cappoquin, is a cavern Con-a-glour, or the Pigeon's-hole, where the descent from the entrance is fifty feet to a cave a hundred and fifty feet long; and opposite to the entrance a small subterranean river, which sinks at Ballynacourty and runs about a mile under ground. Between Mallow and Newcastle, to the south of Lisearrol, is a huge cavern called Kate's-hole, where a stone dropped from the hand at the entrance takes fifteen seconds in its descent to the water which lies deep at the bottom.

In the parish of Saint Owens near the city of Cork is a vast subterranean labyrinth called the Owens, of as yet unexplored extent, though some have advanced a quarter of a mile or more into it. The entrance is an arch of limestone twelve feet high; and the branches of the cavern run in various directions, some in a serpentine manner, others like alleys crossing one another; most of them broad enough to admit six or eight men to walk abreast †.

In a field about three miles from the city of Kilkenny is the entrance of the Cave of Dunmore, the most celebrated cavern of Ireland. No person, of whom I have heard, has ventured into this region of night beyond a subterranean river about a quarter of a mile from the entrance, where is a difficult descent of about a hundred feet. Of the explored

† I find that by the working of a quarry the arch at the entrance has lately fallen, and the mouth of the cavern is at present thereby stopped.

parts of this cavern two are remarkable. One, inhabited by wild pigeons, immediately within the entrance, has the appearance of a grand Gothic structure in ruins, about seventy feet wide and fifty high. The other is like a beautiful temple, of which the floor and sides are in great part lined with a crystalline substance, and the ceiling mostly covered with inverted cones and pyramids of the same bright matter. These ornamental substances are stalactic concretions, which, when strongly illuminated, are like the purest crystal, and assume a variety of curious figures, one resembling an organ, another an altar, and another a cross.

Air.

I have already observed of Ireland, that the earth and air abound in moisture. As winds from westerly, and still more from south-westerly points, predominate so much that they may be said to blow three fourths of the year on this island, which on all sides, except the eastern, lies quite open to the Atlantic, its atmosphere is clouded and moist in the extreme; yet by no means insalubrious, as being in a perpetual state of ventilation. Nothing can be more uncertain than the weather, or irregular than the seasons; but, in general, showers are very frequent, especially in winter, and the quantity of rain which falls in the year is greater than in the southern parts of Britain, in proportion to the area †. The south-west and south winds

† In a registry of seven years, the annual depth of the rain which fell in Dublin was found to be from 198 to 106 inches. Rutty's Nat. Hist. vol. ii. p. 454.

prevail more in winter than in the other seasons; the west in summer and autumn; the south-east, and east, and noreast, and north, in spring. Storms are vastly more frequent in Autumn and winter than in spring and summer, and are found to come oftener in the months of November, December, January, and February, than in the equinoctial months of March and September §.

As the air is more moist, so is the temperature more mild than in South-Britain, both with respect to cold and heat, especially the former. Snow of a month's duration on the ground is a rare phenomenon; and some winters are seen without either frost or snow, excepting what the mountains may occasionally have, but instead thereof abundance of rain ||. Yet, though the winter is, in general, surprizingly mild, much of it even tepid, so as frequently to be too warm for strenuous exercise in the open air, the cold, moderate as it is, continues for seven or eight months; fires in chambers being commonly used from about the middle of September to the middle of May. The seasons are later than in South-Britain; the spring and autumn more tardy in their approach, as also the winter; the fall of the leaf being later here than in England.

§ Ruty, vol. ii. p. 419, 472, 474.

|| In the Dublin Registry of fifty years, thirteen winters were frosty, fourteen wet, and about twenty-six open, mild, or warm. Ruty, vol. ii. p. 469. The quite fair days were, on an average, to the rainy, and snowy, as 110 to 365, p. 487. The number of intirely fair to intirely rainy days, nearly as seven to one. Ibidem.

The



The extent of Ireland in a meridian line not being above four degrees of latitude, its northern and southern parts can scarcely have any very sensible difference of temperature from the difference of climate. Such difference must be occasioned where it subsists, by the elevations of the land, and its situation with respect to the ocean\*. Thus the western and southern parts, lying quite open to the Atlantic, are more moist and temperate than the eastern and north-eastern, which are more landlocked; as also the coast, than the interior country; it being often found that, while the latter is bound with frost, or white with snow, the former is open and verdant to the distance of five or six miles from the sea. Perhaps even the nature of the soil affects the temperature in some small degree; and on those tracts, which have a substratum of limestone near the surface, the snow dissolves sooner, than on others which are neither more elevated nor more remote from the ocean.

Productions.

It has been observed that the humid and rainy atmosphere of Ireland is well adapted to its rocky soil, which is acknowledged to be much more fer-

\* From Hamilton's Experiments to determine the temperature at the earth's surface in Ireland (Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy for 1788) it appears that the mean temperature varies on the coast nearly one degree of the thermometer for every degree of latitude inversely, so that the most southern extremity of the island ought to be four degrees warmer than the most northern. It also appears that at Tullamore in the middle of the island, 206 feet above the level of the sea, the mean temperature corresponds with that of a maritime situation two degrees more to the north.

tile naturally than that of Britain collectively considered, even than that of England, which of Britain is by far the richest part; but its fertility is much more conspicuous in the grass and herbage than in the corn; the excessive moisture, so beneficial to the former, being pernicious to the latter. Thus the wheat is inferior in weight and color to that of drier countries; the crops are liable to be incommoded by weeds; the labors interrupted, and the product damaged by unseasonable-rains. Besides, whatever may be the natural superiority of the Irish soil, it is in acquired fertility far inferior to that of England, which has been improved by the successive labors of many generations.

Improvement of this kind in Ireland is of a much later commencement, and, even if all other impediments were removed, must be slow in its progress, from the want of that attention in the proprietors of estates, which humanity, patriotism, or even a regard for their own posterity, ought to excite. Lands are in general set at such a rate, that the whole produce is little more than sufficient to pay the rent; the remainder being scarcely adequate for the taxes, the tythe, and a most meagre sustenance of the face-ground occupant, who supports a toilsome life on the very refuse of those productions which are raised by his industry. Thus the whole produce being absorbed without a surplus for the melioration of the ground, and no encouragement given by the generality of landlords to their industrious tenantry, it cannot be surprizing that agri-

culture is as yet confined, languid, and managed in a slovenly manner\*.

It is much more to be esteemed a matter of wonder, that under such disadvantages husbandry has made any tolerable progress, and that some parts of the island, particularly in the east, are so cultivated as to yield an exportation of corn. This is the case in some places little favored by nature in respect to their soil, of which the county of Wexford is a strong instance, whose surface is generally rough with hills, and of a shallow soil with very little natural fertility; but so manured, chiefly with marle, by its industrious inhabitants, as to be one of the greatest corn-countries of the island. From the superior population of the northern counties a more flourishing agriculture might be inferred; but the case is otherwise; for, the manufacturers, who there constitute the bulk of the people, instead of being collected, as in England, into towns, and leaving the care of the fields to those whose only profession is husbandry, are spread over the face of the country, exercising the double occupation of

\* No man of candor can deny this incontestable fact, the general condition of the Irish peasantry. Exceptions are doubtless to be found. I could give instances in my own neighbourhood of estates where an honest tenant is seldom dispossessed, and where the lands are almost always set lower than the proposals which the tenants make when their leases expire, because it is well known to be the unfortunate custom of the country to propose a much higher rent than the lands are worth; the proposers thinking that they cannot otherwise have any chance of success in their applications for farms of land.

manufac-



manufactures and tillage, to the neglect of the latter in some degree, though improvement in this respect is of late years visible.

The productions of soil of Ireland are the same with those of Britain, excepting that some are more the objects of attention in one island than in the other. A most material object in all parts of Ireland are potatoes, a vegetable of inestimable value, not ill suited to her watery atmosphere, and long since become the main sustenance of her peasantry†. Whatever efforts have been made in favor of agriculture, particularly by the excellent institution of the Dublin Society who give large premiums for improvement, pasturage, particularly in the south and west, to the great detriment of population, predominates; because the enormous rents of grounds naturally fertile are more easily raised by grazing than tillage; and because pasture grounds are exempt from tythe, the whole weight of which, to the disgrace of the legislature, falls on the industrious cultivators, while the more indolent graziers, who ought to bear a part of the burden, are absolved from this tax. This is evidently a very high

† “The chairmen, porters, and coal heavers in London, and those unfortunate women who live by prostitution, the strongest men and the most beautiful women, perhaps, in the British dominions, are said to be, the greater part of them, from the lowest rank of people in Ireland, who are generally fed with this root. No food can afford a more decisive proof of its nourishing quality, or of its being peculiarly suitable to the health of the human constitution.” *Smith's Wealth of nations*, vol. i. p. 165, Dublin 1793.

premium for the dereliction of agriculture and the adoption of pasturage. In the southern and western parts of Ireland are some of the greatest graziers in Europe, paying rent to the amount of two or three thousand pounds or even much more annually; and at one fair, that of Ballinasloe in the county of Galway, held yearly in October, about ten thousand oxen and a hundred thousand sheep are sold.

Animals.

The sheep, neat cattle, and some other tame quadrupeds of Ireland, are superior in size to those of North-Britain, but inferior to those of England. This inferiority is doubtless caused partly by the inattention of the owners to the breed, and partly by the want of that culture which in England at once enriches the soil, and raises a large supply of vegetables nutritious to cattle, such as turnips, cabbages, and carrots. Great numbers however of large and fat cattle are fed in the rich pastures of this island, particularly in the county of Limerick. Some diminutive cattle are also found, particularly in the Highlands of Kerry, where is a breed of neats of an extremely small size, but remarkably productive of milk, resembling in every respect almost what is called the Alderney cow.

The Irish Wolf-dog, a species of huge greyhound near four feet in height, are very nearly extinct. Wolves were exterminated before the end of the seventeenth century, so that the most formidable predaceous quadruped at present is the Fox. Some herds of red deer are still wild in a few mountainous tracts, particularly in the mass of mountains about the Lake of Killarney. Ireland is still desti-

tute

tute of some species of birds, fish, and other animals, which are found in Britain. Magpies and frogs, which are now very numerous, were unknown here until they were introduced from Britain about the beginning of this century. Moles, toads, and all kinds of serpents are still unknown †.

The rivers of Ireland abound in salmon, of Fish. which a part is sent to the Italian and other markets. These fish are particularly plenty in the river Bann, where fifteen hundred have been taken in a single haul of the Seine; but by mismanagement this fishery has much declined of late. An uncommon kind of fish called the Pullen, less than a herring, but not very unlike it in shape, is found in Lough Neagh. These were much more numerous in the lake before the introduction, about twenty-eight years ago, of the perch, a species until then

† It seems to be taken for granted that snakes, vipers, and other serpents cannot live in Ireland. Perhaps its atmosphere may not be friendly to their propagation; but I strongly suspect that no decisive experiment has been made. The common people believe that the blessing of Saint Patrick rendered the island intolerable to those noxious tribes, but their faith seems not impregnable in this article. A gentleman, many years ago, whose lands were much trespassed by the neighbouring peasants, is said to have given notice in the country about him, that he had imported a number of serpents from England and left them to propagate in his fields. The stratagem was too successful. Not only none dared to pass through his grounds in the night, but, when hay-time and harvest came, none were found bold enough to reap or mow in fields where these terrible unknown animals were suspected to lurk, even after the gentleman had declared the truth, that no such creatures had been brought there.

unknown



unknown in that basin, which escaped into the lake from some ponds, and suddenly increased to an astonishing degree. Fish of various kinds and in great plenty shoal along the Irish coasts, more especially herrings, the multitudes of which are enormous on that part of the Donegal coast which is called the Rosses; but, from similar defects to those of the Scottish fisheries, no adequate advantage has as yet been derived from this bounty of nature §.

Fossils.

The rocky substratum of the soil of Ireland abounds in a variety of subterranean riches; but from a want of wood, and from other causes, this country has hitherto been unable to avail itself of those fossils with which it is so liberally furnished. Some mines however have been opened, as, for instance, a rich one of copper at a place called Crone-Bawn in the county of Wicklow; and another of the same mineral at Redhills in the county of Kildare. At Arigna in the county of Leitrim, to the west of Lough Allen, great works of iron have lately been established. The hills in all this tract of country teem with coal and iron-ore, which will doubtless be a matter of vast profit, when the navigation from Dublin to the Shannon by the Royal Canal shall have been accomplished. Near Ballycastle in the county of Antrim a good mine of coal

§ In the summer of 1784 above forty-five millions of herrings, by a moderate computation, were sold from this coast, beside immense quantities boiled into oil, or thrown away for want of a market; and twice the quantity might have easily been taken.

has

has been long worked, but is at present much neglected. From another, at a place called Drumglass in the county of Tyrone, a communication is opened by a Canal into Lough Neagh. Near Castlecomer in the county of Kilkenny are extensive mines of this fossil, which, being there of a hard sort fit for the forging of iron, is conveyed even by land-carriage to very distant parts of the kingdom.

With a far less proportion than Britain of intire-<sup>Com-</sup>ly waste or unoccupied land, a soil naturally far<sup>merce.</sup> more fertile, abundance of fish around its shores, a widely extended coast abounding in the noblest harbours toward the prevailing winds, and a situation extremely advantageous for commerce in the vast Atlantic between the two continents, Ireland has hitherto languished in her agriculture, manufactures, and navigation, insomuch that extreme poverty is as yet the portion of most of the lower classes of her people. This melancholy state of affairs is chiefly to be ascribed to restrictions formerly laid on her traffic by British laws, the most partial, iniquitous, and impolitic, which have forced the industry of Ireland to stagnate in almost all its channels; while the greatest encouragement and the greatest exertions might seem necessary to counterbalance the incessant drain of her wealth to Britain; so many proprietors of Irish estates and Irish pensions residing in England, that the money annually drawn from Ireland by this drain has been computed at near two millions of pounds sterling. Happily the restraints of Irish commerce have of late been mostly removed, but their baleful effects  
mostly

mostly still remain. A people cannot easily be metamorphosed at once, and a new generation must succeed to the present before the abolition or abatement of such pernicious restrictions can raise a race of manufacturers in the south of Ireland, where the debilitating influence of these British laws has been chiefly felt.

Notwithstanding all discouragements, this island by the force of her great natural advantages, and the industry of her northern manufacturers, has furnished much matter for exportation, and gradually advanced in improvement, vastly more indeed since the relaxation of the baleful restricting laws; infomuch that were the leading men of this and her sister island sincerely and judiciously to study the common interest of both, Ireland might, in no very distant period of time, attain such a pitch of wealth and population, as to contribute most powerfully and effectually to support the common cause of the British empire against any foreign force ||.

The

|| It is evident that should the power of Britain be crushed by the arms of a foreign state, the subjugation of Ireland, which from her natural situation is very properly termed her sister island, would naturally follow. It is equally evident that, should Ireland be detached from Britain and allied with a foreign power, the latter great island, though she should be able to retain her independence, would be subject to be dreadfully harassed in war against that power, by the hostility of Ireland, an island so adapted by her situation to annoy the coasts of Britain. *Dum singuli pugnant universi vincuntur*, is a truth abundantly exemplified by history. Every true and reflecting friend of Ireland must therefore wish the most indissoluble union with  
Britain



The balance of trade of any country is a matter of extremely difficult investigation, and on this head a number of mistakes have been made. With respect to Britain, the balance has been generally supposed to be against Ireland; yet, according to the statement of a late calculator of much ability and information, it appears to be in favor of the latter. One great article of import is coal, chiefly for the fuel of Dublin and other towns on the eastern coast, for which between three and four hundred thousand pounds are annually remitted to Britain. Of near ten thousand tuns of iron annually imported, above a third part comes from Britain. Of above ninety thousand barrels of bark for tanning, yearly purchased abroad, almost all is brought from the same country; beside several other articles, particularly manufactured goods in great quantity and variety. Among various annual importations from foreign countries may be noticed that of above seven thousand tuns of pot-ashes, to the value of above a hundred and sixty thousand pounds, a great part of which comes from Spain; and about twenty thousand tuns of tobacco, of which a very small part is sometimes re-exported. If we were not, however, to make allowance for smuggling, and were to rely on the returns of the custom-houses, by which the exports are stated at above the value of four mil-

Britain on equitable terms; and in like manner every real and well informed friend of Britain must wish such a prosperity of Ireland, in conjunction with his own island, as would sincerely attach the hearts of the Irish to that most natural and safe connexion.

lions

lions of pounds, and the imports at about or under three millions and a half, we should be induced to think the balance of the commerce of Ireland collectively with other countries to be much in favor of this island; though doubtless her commerce is as yet in its infancy, and in a great measure passive, the freight being chiefly carried by British vessels.

The chief trading towns of Ireland are Dublin, Waterford, Cork, Limerick, Derry and Belfast; and the chief exports beef, tallow, hides, butter, and linen-cloth. The manufacture of linen, though scarcely extended beyond a few northern counties, yields an exportation to the quantity of near four millions of yards, and to the value of more than two millions of pounds annually. This is the staple manufacture of the island, and the only one as yet worth notice; for, though the number of sheep in Ireland is probably five or six millions at least, each bearing on an average at least four pounds weight of wool, not enough of woollen cloth is made for home consumption; most of the fine cloth being imported from England. As in South-Britain the chief product of the dairy is cheese, in Ireland it is butter, of which near fifteen thousand tuns are annually exported, chiefly from Cork and Waterford, about seven thousand being shipped at the former in the year 1791, and near four thousand at the latter. Of beef the annual quantity sent abroad amounts to about a hundred and seventeen thousand barrels, nearly the half of which goes from Cork; of pork near ninety-five thousand barrels, of which above a third goes also from Cork, and

and about a fifth from Waterford; and of live neat cattle sent to be fatted in Britain the number is near thirty thousand, of which much above two thirds go from the port of Donaghadee in the county of Down; neither the pastures of the north being so well adapted to the feeding of cattle as those of the south and west, nor the attention of the people so much directed that way.

“ The greatest length of Ireland extends from Extent. north-east to south-west; and a line so drawn between the two most remote points Fairhead and Mizenhead would cut the meridian in an angle of thirty degrees, and measure two hundred and forty-one Irish miles, which somewhat exceed three hundred and six of English statute measure. The longest line, which can be stretched across the kingdom, would measure a hundred and sixty-three Irish, or two hundred and seven English miles from Emlagh-Rash in Mayo to Carnfore-point in the county of Wexford; and this line would intersect the former in an angle of seventy-five degrees. But from the Stags of Cork-harbour to Bloody Farland point in Donegal is the greatest length which can be measured along a meridian, and it will not exceed a hundred and eighty-five Irish or two hundred and thirty-five and a half English miles. If the breadth be measured in the same manner nearly on a parallel of latitude,” the greatest breadth which can possibly be found is, from Emlagh-Rash to the mouth of Strangford-Logh, a hundred and forty-three Irish, or a hundred and eighty-

two



Area. two English miles: but this is vastly more than the mean breadth of the island, no spot in which is fifty Irish, or sixty-three English miles, distant from the sea. Its area, which has been commonly underrated, contains about twenty millions of English, or above twelve millions of Irish acres.

Division. This area, with respect to civil or political distinctions, is divided into the four provinces of Munster, Connaught, Leinster, and Ulster; which are subdivided into thirty-two counties; and these are again subdivided into two hundred and fifty-two baronies. Munster contains the six counties of Waterford, Tipperary, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, and Clare: Connaught the five of Galway, Mayo, Sligo, Leitrim, and Roscommon: Leinster the twelve of Longford, Westmeath, King's-County, Queen's-County, Kilkenny, Carlow, Wexford, Wicklow, Kildare, Dublin, Meath, and Louth: and Ulster the nine of Cavan, Monaghan, Armagh, Down, Antrim, Derry, Donegal, Tyrone, and Fermanagh. Of the four provinces, Munster, though it contains only six counties, is the largest, the number of Irish acres in its area being near three millions and four hundred thousand: and the least is Connaught, which exceeds not much in superficial measure two millions six hundred and thirty thousand acres of the same denomination. The largest of all the thirty two counties is Cork, which contains in area almost a million and fifty thousand of these acres; and the least is Louth, which has hardly a hundred and eleven thousand of the same.

The

The inhabitants of Ireland, amounting to about four millions in number \*, are more equably distributed than those of Britain; the country not containing any tracts entirely waste or desert, except mountains; and even of these eminences so many are cultivated for a considerable way up their sides, or pastured quite to their summits, that all the wastes of Ireland taken together are trifling in comparison of those which Britain contains. The rural parts, except where pasturage predominates, are more populous than those of England; but the towns are in this respect inferior. The northern counties, where the linen manufacture flourishes, are the most populous; and not only of these, but of all Ireland, if we except the county of Dublin where the capital stands, the most thickly inhabited is the county of Armagh, which has on an average nearly seventy-eight houses for every square mile of its area, or one house for every eight acres and one fifth, though it contains no large town, and though its face is uneven with hills, and in some parts occupied with wild mountains. The most thinly inhabited county is that of Galway, which has little more than eighteen houses for every square mile, or one house for every thirty-five acres †.

The chief towns of Ireland are Dublin, Kilkenny, Waterford, Cork, Limerick, and Belfast; Towns.

\* Doctor Beaufort from the Hearth-money returns and other considerations, has stated it at 3,850,000; but from some observations which I have been able to make, I am certain that these returns are a little too low; and I have no doubt of the number above stated.

† Beaufort, p. 18, 78.

beside

beside which three or four more may be noticed in this account.

Dublin.

Dublin, the capital of Ireland, and in magnitude and beauty the second city of the British Islands, stands on a bay of the Irish channel, on both sides of the river Liffey, by which it is nearly bisected; on a space of ground which is mostly low, but which rises in some places more than fifty feet above the level of the sea †; and in the bottom of an extensive hollow, which is bounded on the northern side by grounds of a considerable height but imperceptible ascent, and on the southern by the majestic chain of the Wicklow mountains, which, at the distance of from six to eight miles, sweep the horizon from south-west to south-east, and with their broken line and conical summits form a grand and beautiful termination to the view. A highly improved country around the bay, decorated with a multitude of beautiful villas, the city at the western end, and the bold undulating sweep of mountains in the southern back ground, combine to form to the approaching mariner, when the scene is illumined by the beams of the sun, one of the most glorious landscapes of this kind in the world. The harbour, too shallow for great ships, has been improved at vast expence by works of art. To protect it from the fury of winds, a huge wall or mole is carried into the bay to the length of near four miles, with a light-house on its extremity; and corresponding to this is another Pharos on the bold

† Ruty, Nat. Hist. Dublin, vol. i. p. 4.

promontory,



promontory, called the Hill of Howth, which projects on the northern side of the entrance of the bay.

Though very irregular in its outline, Dublin is conceived to approach a square in its figure, above two Irish miles broad, or near ten in circuit. A fine Circular Road, broad and commodious, incloses the whole. The number of its inhabitants is probably little less than two hundred thousand, and it is in a state of quick augmentation in respect of beauty as well as magnitude. The roofs of the houses are commonly covered with blue slates. Many of the streets are large and elegant, and many superb edifices attract particular attention. Saint Stephen's Green, an English mile in circuit, is a most spacious and beautiful square, but will be much exceeded in grandeur by Merrion-Square, which is not yet finished. The Liffey, which runs above two miles in an almost straight line through the city, is crossed by six bridges, and confined on each side with quays of the breadth of a street. Three of these bridges are elegant, Essex-bridge, Queen's-bridge, and Sarah's-bridge, especially the last, which is a masterly piece of work lately finished, consisting of one arch a hundred and six feet and a half in the span, or width across the stream, and twenty-eight high, with a carriage-way twenty-six feet broad, a flagged foot-way on each side six feet broad, and a solid railing of iron covering the parapets.

Among the public edifices of Dublin, we cannot boast of the churches; but others are truly magnificent, as the Parliament-house, the University, the  
Royal

Royal Exchange, the Custom-house, and the Courts of Justice, with many others not expedient to be here named, much less to be described. The Castle, which is the residence of the Viceroy, first built in the beginning of the thirteenth century, but since variously altered, stands on a rising ground near the center of the city, and consists of two courts, one of which is of an oblong rectangular form, the other a less regular shaped quadrilateral. A rural mansion of the Viceroy is in the Phenix-park, a beautiful royal demesne at the western end of the city and on the north of the river, above two miles long, and a mile and a half broad.

**Kilkenny.** Kilkenny, consisting of the city of Kilkenny properly so named, and the borough of Saint Canice, otherwise called Irishtown, is the capital of its county, and is charmingly situate on two rising grounds, one on each side of the river Nore, where that fine stream makes a bold and beautiful flexure. The greater part is on the western side, where stands a princely edifice called Ormond-castle, the residence of the Earl of Ormond the head of the most illustrious family of Butler, which edifice commands a prospect of distant mountains, and a full view of the city, the river, and two stately bridges. On the same side of the river is the Cathedral, a venerable Gothic pile, in form of a cross, two hundred and twenty-six feet long in the inside, and half as broad. Opposite to the castle, with a fine spacious lawn extending to the river, stands the College of Kilkenny, a beautiful seminary, capable of accommodating commodiously above a hundred boys,

boys, founded by James Duke of Ormond in 1684, and now, by the care and abilities of the Reverend Anthony Pack its present Principal, rapidly rising into reputation, which it had lost by the misconduct of others. Kilkenny, long celebrated on several accounts, one of which is the politeness of its inhabitants, contains about seventeen thousand souls, and is beautified with abundance of fine black marble, which is furnished from quarries in its neighbourhood §.

Wexford, containing nine thousand inhabitants, Wexford, ill built, and of a gloomy appearance, but remarkable for the abundance of provisions with which its markets are supplied, is the Shiretown of the county which bears its name, situate at the mouth of the river Slainey, on a beautiful and wide harbour, which is defended from winds at the entrance by two reciprocally approaching tongues of land, but is too shallow to admit vessels of great burden. A vast wooden bridge, like those of Derry and Waterford, is begun, and is to extend from the town across the great breadth of the Slainey.

At the ancient, decayed, but now reviving town of Ferns in the same county, is an elegant Episcopal palace, finished by the present Bishop the Right Reverend Euseby Cleaver, whose residence contri-

§ From the uncommon species of coal raised in the country, the dryness of the soil, and other circumstances, Kilkenny has obtained the following eulogium, not absolutely true, but admissible on a comparison with other places, that it enjoys "water without mud, air without fog, fire without smoke, and land without bog."



butes as much to promote industry and good morals in that formerly wild and neglected part of the country, as his mansion serves to adorn it.

Water-  
ford.

Waterford, the capital of its county, contains about thirty-six thousand inhabitants, and is most commodiously situate for traffic on the southern bank of the Suir, near the confluence of that fine river with the Nore and Barrow. It consequently enjoys the advantages of the long inland navigation of the three sister rivers on one side, and of a noble deep safe and capacious haven on the other, which is an estuary nine miles long and two in breadth, protected on the eastern side by the Fort of Duncannon, and accommodated with the Light-house of Hook-tower on the extreme point of land on the same side. The city is tolerably well built, and has a noble quay to which vessels of great burden can come, but the largest commonly lie a few miles lower in the harbour; and at the village of Passage, on the western side of this fine estuary, outward-bound ships generally wait for a favorable wind. As between Dublin and Holyhead, so packet-boats are established between this port and that of Milford-haven in Wales; and the municipality has erected a great wooden bridge similar to that of Derry, under the direction of the same architect, eight hundred and thirty-two feet long, and forty broad, over a depth of water, at lowest ebb, of thirty-seven feet, finished in the beginning of the year 1794. The expence of the work, including the purchase of the ferry, has been stated at thirty thousand pounds.

The

The second city of Ireland in extent and population, and at least the fourth of the British Islands, is Cork, built at the bottom of an extensive hollow, or wide valley, on the river Lee, ten miles from the ocean, near the inner end of a gulph, in great part occupied by islands, which forms one of the finest harbours in the world, capable of containing an immense number of the heaviest ships in complete security, and affording to navigators in their approach to the city a very beautiful prospect of sloping grounds adorned with groves and bespangled with villas. Ships of great burden proceed no farther within land than a place called Passage a few miles below the city, but those of three hundred tuns may advance to the quays up the river, the navigation of which is much improved by an encroaching work named the Navigation-wall two miles in length. The islands of the gulph divide it into several channels, and its entrance is protected by Carlisle-fort and other fortresses.

Cork, including the suburbs, extends in length near three miles, and its greatest breadth may be near two. Its inhabitants probably amount to ninety thousand in number. Its buildings cover a cluster of low marshy islands in the Lee and the ascending banks of the river on both sides, where the two main channels are crossed by several bridges; but the smaller channels between the islands are partly filled and converted into streets, and partly confined with quays on which the merchandize is landed at the houses of the owners. The houses in the principal streets, (some of which, newly built, are

straight, wide, and clean,) are mostly built of brick, four stories high, and covered with slates. Almost all the public edifices are of stone. Beside some other religious structures, in Cork are seven churches, and as many Romish chapels.

**Limerick.** Limerick, the capital of the most fertile county of Ireland, stands in a very advantageous situation on the Shannon, near fifty miles from the ocean, where that great river admits vessels of five hundred tons quite up to the quays of the city. Limerick formerly consisted of two towns joined by a bridge, the English town, and the Irish; the former built on an island of the Shannon close to the southern or eastern bank, and the latter, on the main-land; both forming one great street cut at right angles by many lanes, so as altogether to resemble a comb with two rows of teeth: but that figure has been altered, particularly since the demolition of the fortifications above thirty years ago, within which period the town has been vastly augmented, so that it at present contains between forty and fifty thousand souls.

**Galway.** “The town of Galway is situate on the broad and stony river, by which Lough Corrib empties itself into the sea. It does not cover a very large space, but being very compact, and having little waste ground within its ancient and mouldering walls, it contains a great number of inhabitants. They may be estimated at twelve thousand, though there are but nine hundred and fifty houses; for the greater part of this ancient town consists of square edifices at least two hundred years old, with each



each a small court in the center. Several distinct families occupy these large houses; an arched way leading from the street to the court, with a stone stair-case on each side ||." Galway is at present the most considerable town in all Connaught, and is the capital of the largest county of Ireland next after that of Cork.

On a singularly situate hill, insulated, and of an oval form, which stands in the bottom of a valley, on the western side of the river Foyle, whose waters wash its foot through more than half of its extent, is seated the small but beautiful city of Derry, conspicuous by its situation and the lofty spire of its church, and enjoying the advantage of an excellent harbour formed by Lough Foyle and the river. This extremely neat and clean little city, ever memorable for the glorious defence which its citizens made against the arms of James the Second, contains about ten thousand souls, and is encompassed with a wall still intire, hardly an English mile in circuit, in which are four gates, whence run the four main streets meeting near the summit of the hill in a square called the Diamond where stands the Exchange. The highest point of the ground is near Bishop's-gate, where is a triumphal arch with an equestrian statue of King William the Third. The houses are generally of brick, very few above three stories high. The suburbs are not continuous, gardens intervening contiguous to the walls.

A great appendage of this city, which in more formal language is named Londonderry, as having

|| Beaufort, p. 81.

been built on the present plan by a colony from London in the beginning of the seventeenth century, is a bridge of wood over the river Foyle, constructed a few years ago by Lemuel Coxe an American artist, eleven hundred and sixty-eight feet long, forty broad, supported by upright piers, of which the longest is fifty-eight feet in length, and furnished with a draw-arch twenty-five feet wide for the passage of vessels.

Among the buildings of Derry is the Episcopal palace, the present possessor of which, who is also Earl of Bristol, has erected in the county of Derry two very sumptuous edifices, one at a place called Downhill overlooking the ocean, the other at Ballyscullyan on the shores of Lough Beg. The latter is a most magnificent Rotunda, commanding an extensive prospect on all sides, particularly of the whole extent of the great Lough Neagh.

Armagh.

Armagh, a much smaller city than Derry, and every way inferior to it, but remarkable for its antiquity, and the singularity of its situation and appearance, is irregularly built on a steep insulated hill, surrounded by a valley, which is again surrounded by hills, so that the town, in some positions of a spectator, appears like the boll of a hat stuck all over with shells. The church with a spire occupies the summit, and the descent is thence rapid on every side. The houses are generally built of brown marble quarried in the neighbourhood, which is also polished and made into chimney-pieces.

At

At the extremity of the bay of Carrickfergus, at Belfast, the efflux of the river Laggan, stands the rapidly augmented and rapidly encreasing town of Belfast, by far the greatest in the county of Antrim, of which Carrickfergus is the shiretown, with broad straight streets, an elegant exchange, and a bridge of twenty-one arches. Its growing population is estimated at twenty thousand, and in respect of commerce it bears the fourth, if not the third, rank among the towns of this island.

Near the mouth of the Boyne, which carries vessels of a hundred and fifty tons as high as the bridge<sup>da.</sup> of the town, stands Drogheda, enclosing with its old, ruinous, and thin walls the uneven shelving banks of the river on both sides. The two principal streets are large and handsome, but much of the ground within the walls is unoccupied by buildings, the decayed walls and towers have a ruinous aspect, and the mud-walled cabins outside of these give no very favorable prepossession in the approach, in which the spire of one of its two churches is a conspicuous object. Drogheda contains above ten thousand inhabitants; and is a place of considerable trade, which must increase with the advancement of the inland navigation.

About three miles higher up the river stands a lofty monumental square pillar, commemorative of the victory of King William the Third over James the Second in the year 1690;—a most important event in the history of this island, of which we are now to take a short retrospect.

We



History.

We find that Ireland bore anciently the denominations of *Ierne*, *Juverna*, *Hibernia*, & *Scotia*, of which the last was in use even to the tenth century; but at what time it first received inhabitants, and of what revolutions it may have been the scene before the commencement of the Christian era, we are totally ignorant; notwithstanding elaborate and boldly advanced publications concerning the state and history of Ireland in those early ages, which, since they come not only altogether unsupported by any kind of proofs, but also in direct opposition to powerful arguments, are rejected by all investigators, excepting those few persons who have thought proper to interest themselves in the delusion, as wholly fictitious and untrue\*. As darkness impenetrable rests on this period of Irish transactions, so hardly a glimmering dawn of light appears between the incarnation of our Saviour and the introduction of the Christian religion into this island toward the middle of the fifth century. Even after that happy event, very little authentic historical matter can be collected, beyond the affairs of the church and some actions of certain religious and literary men, till the invasion of Anglo-Normans in the twelfth century; whence commences a more authentic, regular, and connected chain of events; so that the periods of time with respect to Irish transactions may not improperly be divided into the unknown, the

\* For a full refutation of these historical romances, which are found to carry their own refutation when read with attention, see Ledwich's *Antiquities of Ireland*, Campbell's *Strictures on the History of Ireland*, &c.

fabulous,

fabulous, the legendary, and the historical; the first ending about the time of the incarnation; the second in the year 432, when Saint Patrick is supposed to have begun to preach; the third at the Anglo-Norman invasion in 1172; and the fourth extending from that event to the present time.

From their language and other documents it is <sup>The Celts</sup> universally agreed that the primitive Irish were of Celtic origin; but from what country they came first into this island by immediate migration, is a question which can never be determined; though that they came at least in great part from Britain, the situation of that great island, with respect to the continent and to Ireland, renders probable.

The Aboriginal Irish received early an accession of <sup>The Teu-</sup> other colonists. It is on very reasonable grounds <sup>tons</sup> believed, that even so soon as the first or second century piratical bands from various tribes of the Teutonic or Scythian race, which had extended itself from the east through great part of Europe, especially over the regions about the Baltic and over Germany, began to visit the coasts of Ireland, and in those and the following ages made successive settlements in the country under the appellations of Firbolgs or Belgians; Scuths, Scutes, or Scots; Fene, Fians or Finns; Tuatha-de-Danans †, Danmonians, or Danes, and several other denomina-

† Tuatha-de-Danans signifies Lord-Danes, a term given to these imperious invaders by the Anglo Saxons. Campbell, p. 93.

tions. These colonists founded Dublin † and other maritime towns before the fifth century, perhaps in the second or even first. They are supposed to have come successively in so small numbers as to be soon undistinguishably mingled with the old natives, forgetting their vernacular speech, adopting that of the Aborigines, and thus occasioning a far less change of language than of blood; though it is allowed that the Irish tongue was greatly altered by an admixture of Teutonic dialects.

The planting of the gospel in this island toward the middle of the fifth century made a grand epocha in the history of Ireland; as, together with some knowledge of divine revelation, literature was introduced among the Irish, to whom the use of letters had been before, either not at all, or, very little known §. By subsequent events in other parts of Europe, this western sequestered region, before so obscure, became the great nursery of learn-

† This town was called by the Danes Dyflin, which hardly differs in sound from Duvlin or Dublin, the present name. In the extant works of an ancient geographer it is named Eblana; but we have good reason to think that the name was originally written by him Deblana; it having been the custom of transcribers to omit at first a great initial letter with intention of afterwards filling the blank in an ornamental manner, which was sometimes forgot, and the blank thus left unfilled.

§ We have no shadow of proof that the Irish had any alphabet before they received the Roman characters. As to the Ogham or Ogham-characters, they were only affectedly obscure, or pedantic modes of writing, formed by a corruption of the Roman letters, like the Runic letters of the Scandinavians. See Ledwich, p. 79—109.

ing



ing to the Christian world. The exterminating wars of the Anglo-Saxons in Britain forced numbers of the British clergy to take refuge in Ireland; and the discouragements given to literature by the Popes of those ages caused many, who aimed at the acquisition of knowledge, to repair for instruction to this remote island, where the papal influence had not as yet extended to inthrall the understanding. Thus convents and seminaries of learning became so numerous among the Irish, and so frequented by students, in the sixth and seventh centuries, that their country attained through Europe the glorious appellation of *The Island of Saints and of Scholars*; nor seems it to have quite lost its right to that supereminent title before the subjection of its church to the papal see in the twelfth century.

But though the monasteries of Ireland were sanctuaries of learning, and of the best kinds of learning which were cultivated in Europe in those dark ages, yet learning was confined to the monasteries, which are in their very nature detached from society, and had very little influence, if any at all, on the mass of the people, who remained immersed in barbarism, yet who, in their bloody intestine commotions, religiously respected these asylums of piety, and preserved them inviolate, "for, religious zeal has, at every period, been a striking feature in the Irish character ||."

The most ancient form of government, which can be traced in Ireland, was that of an indefinite or

|| Campbell, p. 13.

uncertain

uncertain number, six, seven, or more, of chiefs, princes, or provincial kings, among whom whoever gained an ascendancy arrogated for the time the title of King of Ireland, receiving a kind of homage, and, where he could enforce the payment, exacting a tribute from the rest \*. Under each of these princes were several subordinate chieftains, or toparchs, who paid him in like manner tribute and allegiance.

We are told "that in the Irish monarchy two things are to be regarded, hereditary right and the election of the people; by which we are to understand that the election could fall on a certain family only, but that the choice of the individual of that family belonged to the people; so that it was elective as to the person, and hereditary as to the blood. These principles so jarring were the perpetual sources of discord and contention, which could only be composed by the strongest hand. As a remedy for these inconveniences, which necessarily adhered to this rude form, it was customary to elect the next most worthy of the same blood, whom they called Roidamna, and whose destination it was to ease the sovereign of some of the cares of royalty during his life, and to succeed to the throne after his death. But however this might mitigate, it did not cure the malady: for sometimes the Roidamna took up arms against the monarch, and sometimes both of them fell victims to some more potent faction. A

\* We are told that the government was a regular pentarchy, or government of five kings with one supreme head; but of this no evidence is to be found.

similar custom of electing a successor for the provincial kings and subordinate toparchs prevailed; but these were called Thaynists or Tanists: And so rooted was this mode of choosing a successor in every district and department of the realm, that the bishops had their comorbans or coadjutors, who generally succeeded to their sees, unless set aside by some superior interest.

Such, it is said, was the constitution of the Irish government in the fifth, sixth, and seventh centuries; a constitution calculated only for a people, whose various tribes, or septs, were perpetually at war with each other, and who were not willing to dispense, even for a day, with the want of a general to lead them to battle. In the eighth century a new order of government is said to have taken place in two royal families by alternate succession; which, instead of diminishing, increased those factions to which the nation was before too incident †." So that it may be justly said that "an epitome of the civil history of ancient Ireland is briefly this: Divided and subdivided into a multitude of petty states, connected together by no bond of political union, cemented by no sense of common interest ‡," the Irish were incessantly torn with intestine wars, and "the body of the people were the abject dependents of an uncertain set of barbarous chieftains, who used their wretched followers as the determined tools of their beggarly yet bloody ambition §.

† Campbell, p. 324, 325.

‡ Campbell, p. 12.

§ Campbell, p. 201.



We are told that in the ninth century the Scandinavians, whether we call them Danes, Normans, Ostmen, or Easterlings, sent a new army into Ireland under the command of Turgesius, Torgis, or Thorgils, who made a conquest of the whole island, destroying the seminaries of learning, and wasting the country with fire and sword; but that the natives soon freed themselves from the Danish yoke, and in two centuries after quite exterminated or expelled these foreigners. This account of a total conquest appears not to be founded in fact, and "the truth of the matter seems to be that the power of the Ostmen was at no time firmly established in the interior parts of the kingdom, except in Ulster, where Armagh appears to have been their headquarters ||: and as to their expulsion from Ireland, that is well known to be a mere fiction; for, the Danes or Ostmen still retained possession of the maritime towns, and of all the trade of the island, till the invasion of the Anglo-Normans in the twelfth century; and even, long after this event, they remained a distinct people, insomuch that, as we learn from the registry of Limerick, so late as the reign of Edward the Second of England in the fourteenth century, "matters of property were, then and there, decided by the oaths of twelve English, twelve Danes, and twelve Irish\*."

Antiquities.

Corresponding to the genuine literary documents concerning the state of Ireland in the ages anterior to the English, or Anglo-Norman settlement, are

|| Campbell, p. 189.

\* Campbell, p. 201.

its meagre monuments of antiquity. In a country never invaded by the Romans, and never colonized by any people more civilized than the Ostmen, what magnificent works can be supposed to have been constructed? The Ostmen, we allow, who came to this island in the ninth and following centuries, had made some advancement by navigation and commerce in the arts of life. They are with good reason believed to have introduced into Ireland the art of building with stone and mortar: they fortified their towns, and coined money, some pieces of which are still extant: yet their place was still but low in the scale of civilization, their communities but small, and the old inhabitants quite barbarous.

Of no monuments of those ages can Ireland boast superior to the Round Tower, which in architectural merit is inferior to the Gothic Pillar. Others more ancient and more coarse are sufficiently numerous; as the Cairns, Carnedhs, or piles of loose stones, coacervated on the pinnacles of mountains, for purposes of ancient Pagan superstition; the rude colonnades, Druidical temples, or Stonehenges in miniature, many remains of which are here as in Britain; barrows, or artificial hillocks, commonly in the form of truncated cones, like those of Britain already noticed in this volume; Cromlyee-aghs, or great flat stones, raised from the ground, horizontal or inclined, for some unknown rites of rude religion; and rude fortresses, called Rathes and Diêns, supposed to have been originally raised by Teutonic or Scythic invaders. These were high  
mounds

mounds of earth, natural or artificial, environed sometimes with a wall, but commonly with a trench or trenches. "These raths, always on elevated spots, are of different dimensions, some measuring not more than ten or fifteen yards in diameter, others containing eighteen or twenty English acres: they were always proportioned to the power and property of the toparch. Round these the clan resided, and within them they retreated from danger. Many raths are artificial with subterraneous chambers and sallyports †." The Dûns were originally insulated rocks, but, in the promiscuous and vulgar use of the term, they are to be understood as high fortresses whether of rock or earth ‡.

The round towers, which in all probability, according to the import of their Irish name Cloghad, served as belfries to the monasteries, were tall hollow pillars of stone and lime, of a nearly cylindrical form, but narrowing somewhat upwards, pierced with some lateral holes to admit the light high above the ground, and surmounted with conical roofs of the same materials. Of these simple but durable productions of the masonry of Ireland, before the introduction of Anglo-Norman arts, fifty-six, from fifty to a hundred and forty feet high, and from eight to twelve in diameter, in the clear, still survive the injuries of time §. The most elegant of all in stile of architecture is one in the island of Devenish in Lough Erne, which is quite smooth in-

† Ledwich, p. 186.

‡ Ledwich, p. 187.

§ Beaufort, p. 138.



ternally like the barrel of a gun, eighty-four feet high to the apex of its coniform roof, which occupies fifteen feet of that altitude; nine feet and two inches in diameter within the wall, which is three feet and five inches thick; and, beside the door, which is eleven feet above the ground, perforated with seven square holes by way of windows. The Round Tower of Kildare is one of the highest, its altitude having been found, after the loss of its top, to be a hundred and seven feet.

Toward the end of the twelfth century, and in the following ages, castles were erected, the stately ruins of which are still to be seen in every part of the kingdom; but these were the works of the Anglo-Norman colonists, from whose invasion we date the commencement of the historic period of Irish transactions.

The divided and feeble state of the Irish nation, <sup>English</sup> if a nation it might then be called, rent by the in- <sup>invasion.</sup> cessant wars of its mutually hostile septs or clans, perhaps more actuated with vengeful hatred one against another than against any foreign enemy, seemed to invite the arms of any potent neighbour, who should have leisure to attempt the conquest of their country. This escaped not the penetrating eye of Henry the Second of England. This great monarch in the year 1156 obtained from the Pope, who then assumed a right to dispose of kingdoms, the sanction of religion for the subjugation of Ireland to the English crown. The feigned object of this invasion was the reformation of religious abuses among the Irish, but the real view of the sovereign

Pontiff was well known to be the subjection of the Irish church to the see of Rome, and the consequent augmentation of the Papal revenue; the payment of Peter's pence, or of a penny for every house annually, being most expressly stipulated. More immediate concerns however intervened to delay the execution of his project for some years, till at length Henry found a very convenient opportunity to attempt, and partly to achieve, but, unfortunately for both nations, not to complete the conquest of the island.

Dermot Macmurrough, Prince of Leinster, having, about the year 1153, carried away the wife of Tiernan O'Ruark Prince of Brefney, a territory which comprehended the present county of Leitrim and some neighbouring districts, a deadly hatred arose between these two chieftains; and, about sixteen years after, Roderick O'Connor, Prince of Connaught, who then bore the title of King of Ireland, entered Leinster, with an army under pretence of avenging the injury of O'Ruark, and soon despoiled Dermot of all his dominions. The deposed prince repaired for succour to Henry who was then in France, and who was too much occupied with more immediate concerns to grant him any more effectual assistance than letters, in which any subjects of the British crown, who might choose to become volunteers in the cause of the Irish prince, were authorized to attempt his restoration. By these letters and by large promises he engaged in his interest, not without great difficulty, some adventurers from the southern borders of Wales, particularly

ticularly Richard, surnamed Strongbow, Earl of Chepstow and Strigul, to whom he promised his daughter Eva in marriage together with the reversion of his dominions\*.

Robert Fitz-Stephen, one of those adventurers, landing near Wexford in the year 1169 with somewhat less than five hundred men, and, being joined by Maurice de Prendergast with about ninety more, soon took that town, which, like the rest on the coasts of Ireland in those times, belonged to the Danes. This force, being a short time after augmented by the junction of Maurice Fitz-Gerald with near two hundred men, restored to the Prince of Leinster his barbaric dignity. At length Earl Richard himself, arriving in the year 1170 with twelve hundred soldiers, took the city of Waterford, afterward that of Dublin, and seemed, with his Anglo-Norman forces combined with those of Leinster, to menace to Roderic the deprivation of the monarchy.

For the successes of these Anglo-Norman adventurers, with their English and Welch followers, the inferiority of the Irish in affairs both civil and military may easily account. The English "were precisely in that state when the splendor of martial achievements added the highest lustre to the character of the citizen, and when the most fierce and daring exertions of courage made ample atonement

\* The latter part of this promise or stipulation was, according to the only modes of succession at that time known in Ireland, a mere nullity; all the princes and toparchs receiving their dignities by election, not inheritance.



## THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

for the want of justice, of learning, and of those arts of peace which humanize our nature, polish manners, and embellish society. They had been long inured to war both abroad and at home; and they, who undertook the Irish expedition, were the most vigorous and hardy volunteers of the nation; armed at all points, and thoroughly versed in the Norman tactics then the most excellent in Europe: and now, united in one design, they were animated by one soul, and governed by one mind! No wonder that the impressions of such men were formidable to a people but little removed from the infancy of society, and who, though endowed with all the best gifts of nature, were not yet enlightened with any idea of a national interest, nor warmed by any zealous ardor for its defence. They always made resistance, and frequently the attack; but their resistance was feeble, because they knew no discipline, and their attack was easily repelled, because, though impetuous, it was not supported by conduct. Even their personal courage but little availed them in battle, for, as their country was destitute of castles and fortresses, so their bodies were almost naked, and wholly unprotected by the shield, the helmet, or coat of mail. They had indeed a sort of sword, but their general weapons were axes and pitchforks, and staves: *even the use of the bow was unknown among them.*

These rapid victories of his subjects inflamed the jealousy of King Henry, and stung him in the most vulnerable part. While he envied Strongbow those laurels

laurels which he had gathered, he dreaded lest his alliances in England, and his marriage in Ireland, with the kingdom of Leinster as a dower, might enable him to reduce the whole island, and there set up an independent sovereignty. He affected the utmost indignation: and though the Earl had not moved a step without his consent, the King asserted that he acted in violation of royal authority and contrary to his express prohibition. He immediately issued a proclamation, commanding all his subjects who had gone to Ireland, to return before the next Easter festival, on pain of perpetual banishment and forfeiture of their estates.

Strongbow soon found himself forsaken by many of his English knights; and the death of his father-in-law Dermot, happening about the same time, was succeeded by the almost total defection of the Irish: So that instead of being invested with the kingdom of Leinster, the inheritance of which by marriage settlement devolved on him, he found himself reduced to the extremity of distress, and in want of almost every necessary. In this critical juncture, when both England and Ireland appeared equally hostile to those forlorn adventurers who adhered to the Earl of Chepstow †, Roderick, with an army perhaps the most numerous ever until then seen in Ireland, besieged Strongbow in Dublin, while a Danish fleet blockaded the harbour; for the chief resistance made to the English invaders arose from the Danish settlements. From this

† Campbell, p. 235—237.

dreadful situation the garrison was relieved by a desperate sally, made by the advice of Fitzgerald, by which the ill-connected army of discordant Irish clans was wholly dissipated, and an end put to the blockade.

In this posture of affairs Henry himself, landing at Waterford with five thousand men in the year 1171, was appeased by Strongbow and the other adventurers, who surrendered to him their acquisitions, and received part of them again in feudal tenure. Awed by a force to them so formidable the Irish thought no more of resistance, and probably many of their chiefs deemed it less inglorious to pay homage and tribute to so great a monarch as Henry Fitz-Empress, than to the Prince of Connaught. All of them submitted except Roderic himself, and O'Nial the powerful dynast of Ulster, who refused to recognize this foreign jurisdiction; and it is much to be regretted that certain unhappy disputes, which had some years before arisen between Henry and the then tyrannical see of Rome, forced this wise and enterprising sovereign to repair to the continent before he had completed the conquest of this country, and settled its administration in an eligible manner. For, if he "had made a complete reduction of Ireland, he would probably have done with the whole kingdom as he did with the colony which he planted in Leinster: he would have communicated to all the natives the common benefits of the English laws and the English constitution, as far as they were then capable of receiving them: and then (can we doubt it?)  
both



both English and Irish would have been long since incorporated as one people, and, instead of plotting and contriving mutual depression and mutual destruction, they would by this time have consulted mutual aggrandisement and mutual happiness †."

It is said with truth that Henry, "upon leaving Ireland left not a single subject there more than he found in it; §" for the English colonists were his subjects before, and the Irish, at the very best, were only tributaries, not subjects. Roderick in the year 1175 submitted and swore fealty by his proxies to Henry, as his liege Lord, at Windsor; by which act he was bound for the tribute of the inferior Irish princes, which was to be conveyed through his hands to Henry: but his sovereignty over his own subjects, such as it was, he still retained in as much force as before, without owing any farther duty to the lord paramount; and the same was the case with the subordinate princes and toparchs.

The English were so far from making a conquest of Ireland at this time, that, during more than four hundred years after this invasion, the Irish dynasts continued to act as independent princes, making almost perpetual wars one against another and against the English of the Pale, or that portion of Ireland which was in the possession of English chiefs, and in which the English laws were admitted as the rules of administration. The English monarchs, occupied by what appeared to them concerns of

† Campbell, p. 251.

§ Davise's Discovery of the True Causes, &c.

more importance, neglected Ireland, leaving the affairs of this country to the management of barons, or feudal subjects, who pursued a most narrow, absurd, and even wicked policy, a policy calculated to perpetuate the barbarism of the old natives, their independence with respect to English government, and their enmity against it. Irish clans, who, instead of uncertain tributaries, wished to become subjects of the crown of England, were, on repeated applications, refused a participation of the English laws and constitution, and left to the usage of their old customs called Brehon-laws, which were fit only for a very rude state of society, ordaining no higher punishment than a fine for any crime howsoever great.

“ In the most prosperous period before the war of the Roses, the English settlements never extended to above a third of the island ||;” and we find them reduced in the fourteenth century into a much narrower compass.

When, in the reign of the weak, and, I might almost say, deservedly unfortunate Edward the Second, Robert Bruce had established the independence of Scotland, he sent an army of Scots into Ireland in the year 1315, under the command of his brother Edward Bruce, who, being joined by numbers of the natives, desolated with most barbarous fury the lands of the English, and, reducing the country to an unspeakable state of misery, was crowned King of Ireland at Dundalk. Though

|| Campbell, p. 252.

this adventurous prince, in a defeat of his army near the same town in 1318, lost this new title and his life together, yet the shock of the invasion threw the affairs of the English colonists into a state of debility, so that from that time they "declined apace; but this decline was precipitated by the following unwary proceeding.

It had been the practice of Henry the Second and his successors to give grants of very extensive territories, with exorbitant jurisdiction over them, either for services done alledged or promised." This proved one of the greatest obstructions to the conquest of the island, which was the end proposed; for, these potent barons grew into such consequence as to affect the state of independent princes, making ruinous wars one against another like the sects of the Irish, and paying but imperfect submission to the will of their sovereign.

"Edward the Third, feeling the ill effects of what his predecessors, and even what he himself had done, and probably irritated at the misuse which these factious nobles had made of the delegated powers committed to them as chief governors, resolved to change hands, and, instead of committing the reins of government to Irish-Englishmen, to send over Englishmen-born. But foreseeing that these governors unconnected in the nation, might be thwarted by an overbearing opposition from those lords who had a hereditary pretension to vice-royalty, he took one of the most rash and ill-advised steps, which could have been adopted by so wise a prince. He at one dash of his



his pen made a resumption of all the estates and jurisdictions granted by himself and his father. But this hasty measure, instead of alienating their lands, alienated the affections of all his Irish subjects, who, considering it as a common cause, burst into a flame, which was not quenched till after a contest of eleven years, when this resumption was annulled: but a faction was formed of the *English by birth*, and the *English by blood*, which remained long after the original cause was removed \*."

In the distracted and feeble state of English government in Ireland, great numbers of the British colonists, associating with the ancient natives, and adopting their laws, manners, garb, and language, had lost all connection with the English of the Pale, and even turned their arms against them; a practice even as early as the reign of Edward the First in the thirteenth century †. Under the specious pretext of preventing the growth of this evil, the famous *Statute of Kilkenny* was enacted in the year 1367, by which all connexion was forbidden between the English colonists and the old Irish; and the latter, who had before been accounted aliens, were now to be considered as enemies. "But this ill-timed severity, though commended by some writers, instead of serving the English colony, tended only to streighten the borders of the English Pale," which was at length reduced into so contracted

\* Campbell, p. 344, 345.

† Leland's History of Ireland, vol. 1. B. 2. ch. 5.

limits as to comprehend only four counties: "and so degrading was the weakness of the English government, that the English settlers became tributaries to the Irish chieftains, and paid them regularly for their protection, or cessation from hostilities, what was called the *Black Rent*."

The civil wars between the Roses, instead of diminishing increased these maladies. Ireland had its Yorkists and Lancastrians; and, according as these parties prevailed in England, their opponents were oppressed in Ireland. Butler was head of the Lancastrian, and Fitzgerald of the York party. These rival houses only thought of mutual depression. They not only repealed each others laws, and confiscated each others estates, when in place and power; but they convened at the same time different assemblies; each assuming to themselves the authority of the constitutional parliament †." At length the Geraldine faction, or that of the Fitzgeralds, gaining the ascendancy, so far as to disturb the government of Henry the Seventh, who was of the Lancastrian line, and who had put an end to the war of the Roses, this wary prince deputed into Ireland Sir Edward Poyning to give some stability to the influence of the crown in this country.

Among others, two laws in particular were procured to be enacted by Poyning in the year 1495. One was that the statutes lately made in England should be adopted in Ireland; a law neither new

† Campbell, p. 346, 347.

nor extraordinary, as the same provision had been before made in the reign of Edward the Fourth. The other, which we call emphatically Poyning's Law, and which made a most essential change in the Irish constitution, provided that no parliament should thenceforth be held in Ireland, but at such season as the King's Lieutenant and Council in Ireland should certify to the King under the Great Seal the causes and considerations for holding it, and also all such acts as they might think should pass in the same parliament. By this law, popular at first, because it gave some relief to the people from the exactions of rapacious governors, but unpopular in later times from a change of circumstances, no parliament could be held in Ireland without a formal certification of the Governor and Council of Ireland transmitted to England to the King and Council there, and a formal remission of their approbation; and, according to an explanation of it made long after in the reign of Mary, no bill, nor even heads of a bill, could be framed by the Lords or Commons of Ireland, but only by the Irish Viceroy and Privy Council, who transmitted the bills to England to the King and Privy Council there, to be approved, altered, or rejected; while the Irish Lords and Commons had no farther power, when a bill was remitted from England, altered or unaltered, than simply to accept or reject it.

In the reign of Henry the Seventh, from the civil regulations of Poyning, and the military operations of the Earl of Kildare, the head of the Geraldine faction, who from disgrace and imprisonment  
had



had risen into royal favor, and the vicegerency of Ireland, the English power in this country, which had gradually declined, since the invasion of Bruce, into a miserable and precarious state of weakness, began to revive and take a more favorable turn, but still with a tardy and impeded course. It was considerably augmented in the reign of Henry the Eighth, who in the year 1541 assumed the title of King of Ireland instead of that of Lord, with which his predecessors had been contented, but which was rejected by him as a title of inferior dignity, and as having been originally conferred by the Pope whose authority he had disclaimed. Yet, though by the vigor and policy of the administration of Irish affairs, the principal chieftains, who had never before owned any subjection to him, submitted to pay tribute; and those degenerate English who had renounced all allegiance, became not only tributaries but also subjects; still the subjection of the Irish chiefs was but nominal; the English laws were not admitted in their territories; even the *black rent* was not entirely withheld, but disguised under the name of a pension; and their force actually increased, as the war demonstrated which they afterward waged with his daughter Elizabeth, for whose arms was reserved the reduction of this island.

After the accession of this renowned princess, who established the Protestant religion at home and protected it abroad, and who shewed by her conduct in England what female talents were capable of performing in the government of a great nation,  
in

in a situation difficult and perilous, amid affairs which demanded the most delicate management and vigorous execution, the parties in Ireland, which had divided this unhappy country, and continue still to divide it, changed names, and, in a great measure also, persons, taking instead of English and Irish, the terms of Protestants and Catholics, or Heretics and Papists. Of the latter were all the Irish clans with most of the old English colonists: of the former were few beside the new-comers from England. Instigated by emissaries from the Pope, and from Philip the Second of Spain, the Irish Toparchs, particularly O'Nial of Tyrone, made frequent attempts against the Queen's authority. After successive hostilities, in which the famous Earl of Essex was foiled, though commanding an army of twenty thousand men, the greatest force ever until then employed in Ireland by the English government, an almost universal insurrection of the northern, western, and southern clans took place, headed by Hugh O'Nial, no contemptible general, and assisted with money, arms, and men, from Spain. This dangerous war, which menaced the annihilation of the English power in this country, was, by the conduct of Charles Blunt, Lord Mountjoy, brought to a favorable conclusion by the surrender of O'Nial and the complete subjugation of Ireland, in the year 1603, the last of the glorious reign of Elizabeth.

This is the date of the real conquest of Ireland, of which nothing like a conquest had ever before been made by the English. Still a task of the utmost

most importance remained, which by the death of Elizabeth devolved on her successor James the First, to establish the English laws throughout the island, to secure the administration of justice, and to reduce the whole to order and obedience under civil government. His attention to this great object, in which he in great measure succeeded, by planting large colonies of British Protestants, the greatest part of whom were Scots, on the forfeited lands of the northern Irish chiefs, constitutes the real honour of the reign of this otherwise weak, pedantic, and frivolous monarch. "And here it must be observed that the reign of James the First forms a new epoch in the constitution of Ireland. Till his time the nation at large had never been represented in parliament; for, what was before called the Parliament of Ireland should have been rather called the Parliament of the Pale; as it was in fact but a Colonial Assembly, composed of the Lords and Commons of little more than four counties, to which the English settlement called the Pale had been confined §." Hence was occasioned such a revolution in the maxims of government and sentiments of the people, that the law of Poyning, of which the people had been tenacious in the reign preceding that of James, became unpopular, and an object of court-prerogative in that of his successor.

The general settlement of Ireland, so honorable to the memory of James, and so productive of tranquillity and prosperity to the nation, was nearly

§ Campbell, p. 351.



ruined in the unfortunate reign of his successor Charles the First. In the year 1641, the Irish Catholics, taking the advantage of the weakness of England which was distracted by unhappy dissensions between the King, who affected arbitrary monarchy, and the people who were laboring to abridge his prerogative, broke into a dreadful insurrection followed by a most horrible and memorable massacre of many thousands of Protestants. This diabolical butchery, which taken in all its circumstances together, stands unparalleled in the records of history, shews that the divinely amiable religion of Christ, which every where breathes the purest benevolence, mutual love, and mercy, may, among an ignorant people, with howsoever good natural dispositions, be, by the artful misrepresentations of impious men, perverted to purposes diametrically opposite to its original end, so as to excite, instead of the purest charity, a ferocity far exceeding that of the most ferocious tribes of savages to whom all religion is unknown ||.

Some

|| Two circumstances among others mark a superior degree of cruelty in the Irish insurgents of that time over the most vindictive tribes of savages of whom we have any knowledge. The one is that the latter convert many of their prisoners into associates, incorporating them into their tribes with every privilege which themselves possess; whereas no consideration could save the lives of Protestants who fell into the hands of the former; not the most solemn conversion to the Romish religion could ward the deadly blow. Another is that the latter think of no farther vengeance than what they can inflict on the body of a captive; but the former were rejoiced at the eternal torments which

Some late writers have endeavoured to throw a veil of obscurity over these execrable transactions; and some have affected to discredit the facts, which are as authentic as ever were recorded in the annals of any nation, on various, but all of them false, grounds, one of which is, that the relations of some of these facts were accompanied with accounts of spectres. But it is perfectly well known that the apparition of spectres was as firmly believed by all ranks of people in that age, as any of the common occurrences of life, and it was altogether natural that in the most dismal times mens imaginations should be subject to gloomy terrors; besides that if all original accounts must be rejected which are tinged with superstition, the history of many ages and nations must be annihilated. Party writers have particular systems to support, but historians greatly mistake their duty, when they wish to disguise transactions, which convey the most important lessons of instruction. Why should the Irish of the present day be supposed answerable for the atrocious deeds of their ancestors, more than the English and Germans of this age for the nefarious massacres of the Jews perpetrated by their progenitors? I sincerely love my countrymen, and hope that the time is fast approaching, when they will universally regard with

which they were taught to believe that the souls of the heretics were to undergo in the other world, and they sounded the denunciations of these torments in their ears when expiring. The subject is too horrid for detail. A short sketch of the massacre may be seen in Mrs. Macauley's History of the Stuarts, vol. 3. p. 71, 72. Dublin, 1767.

due horror that fatal delusion of their ancestors, which blasted the nascent prosperity of their country, and cast on its annals a fouler stain than is to be found in those of any other.

The woful distractions of this hideous revolt continued some years, till at length the English parliament having totally, after an obstinate and bloody war, quelled the force of the royalists, had an opportunity of giving efficient attention to the affairs of Ireland. An army under the command of Oliver Cromwell reduced great part of the country in the year 1649, and its reduction was completed in 1652.

The troubles of Ireland were revived by James the Second, whose narrow and cruel spirit, inflamed by bigotry, led him to disarm and oppress the Irish Protestants with a Catholic army. The total suppression of the Protestant force in this country was prevented by the resistance of some brave men, who, collecting at the stations of Derry and Enniskillen, repelled the attacks of the enemy with a courage and perseverance truly heroic, until they were relieved by the arms of William the Third, whose forces came to their assistance in the year 1689. The army of this prince, whose memory is revered in Ireland, having, under his personal command, discomfited that of James on the banks of the Boyne in 1690, and under Ginkle his general the following year at Aughrim, completed the whole by the reduction of Limerick.

Since that fortunate event Ireland has happily remained in peace, but her government has undergone



gone some alterations. We find that in the reign of Henry the Third in the thirteenth century, if not earlier, the English Pale had not only a parliament, but also representatives of the people\*; and I have already observed that, in the reign of James the First in the beginning of the seventeenth century, the parliament was changed from a Colonial or Provincial Assembly into a Representative body of the whole nation. It has also been observed that a change of sentiments began then to take place, with respect to the manner in which acts of parliament were to be passed. “ So early as the reign of James the First the Commons claimed the right of being at least *Remembrancers* to the Privy Council of such laws as were fit to be propounded: and, after the fall of Strafford, they not only claimed but established the right of preparing what was called Heads of Bills, and of presenting them to the Governor and Council for transmission. From that time the Statutes of Ireland were enacted in the following manner:—The matter or heads of a bill were, by the leave of either house, brought in, moved for, or propounded, and then debated upon; and, if agreed to by a majority, they were laid before the Chief Governor and Privy Council, who sometimes certified them without alteration, sometimes after altering them; and sometimes smothered them altogether by not sending them to England.

If they were certified by the Chief Governor and Irish Privy Council, transmitted under the Great

\* Campbell, p. 342.

Seal of Ireland, and sent back unaltered under the Great Seal of England, then they passed that house in which they originated, and were so sent to the other house of parliament; and, if approved by that house, the bill passed into a law by the Royal Assent from the Throne given by the Lord Lieutenant. But if the bill came back altered, then it was usual either to reject it entirely, or frame anew the heads of a bill in compliance with the returned alterations, and then send it on the above-mentioned progress †."

It is evident that since, the assent of the Chief Governor being mere matter of form, the Royal Assent, instead of coming last as in Britain, came second in order; since thereby a bill lost all that support which the co-operation of the two houses of parliament might by their joint weight and influence have given it; and since the Irish Privy Council, which was actuated solely by the will of the Monarch, assumed a power of stifling and totally suppressing the heads of bills, instead of certifying them into England; the Irish parliament, with all its privilege of framing heads of bills, was very little better than a register of Royal Edicts. Beside this, the British parliament assumed the power of making laws to bind Ireland, by some of which her commerce was injuriously restricted; and by one, made in the sixth year of the reign of George the First, the right of the British parliament to legislate for Ireland was formally declared,

† Campbell, p. 352.

and the judicial power of the Irish House of Lords quite abrogated as a Supreme Court of Appeal for Ireland, the judicature of which was subjected to that of England. These usurpations and oppressions the Irish nation was unable to resist, unhappily enfeebled by their division into Protestants and Catholics. Yet some opposition was made, and an event at length took place, calamitous indeed in its concomitant circumstances, but followed by consequences beneficial to Ireland in particular, and operative of a revolution in the political sentiments of many men.

In the unequal contest which Britain sustained, in her absurd attempt to subjugate her American colonies, against the combined powers of France, Spain, and the Dutch Commonwealth in alliance with these Colonies, Ireland was left without a force for her defence against the invasions of the common enemy. Alarmed at the imminent dangers to which they were abandoned by the British government, the Irish Protestants entered into associations, and under the name of Volunteers, formed themselves into a regular military force. The number of disciplined men, which was gradually augmenting, amounted to above forty thousand, of whom more than half were inhabitants of the northern counties. Conscious that to them their country, impoverished and oppressed by a foreign legislature regardless of her sufferings, owed her safety from hostile invasion and devastation, they perceived their own importance, and demanded an emancipation from those shackles which had been fixed by British laws on their



their commerce and government. These demands were mostly granted in the year 1782, and more explicitly confirmed the following year. The commerce of Ireland was freed from the most material restrictions, and, her parliament being rendered totally independent of the British legislature, her government assumed its present form.

Government.

Ireland, in its present state, is a kingdom in itself distinct and separate from all other, but inseparably united to the Imperial Crown of Britain; forming a part of the British monarchy, and subject to the King of Britain in the same manner, or with almost the same constitution of government as Britain herself; having a legislature similar to the British, but entirely separate and independent, almost the same system of laws, and the same modes of administering justice. Immediately at the head of the Irish government is a Viceroy, stiled Lord Lieutenant, the substitute and semblance of regal majesty, appointed and removable at pleasure by the King of Britain, in whose name, and by whose authority, he convokes, prorogues, and dissolves the parliament, and exercises other functions of royal prerogative. In the same manner that the British parliament is septennial, that of Ireland is octennial. The temporal peers increase in number from the same cause as the British. The House of Commons consists of three hundred members, two being returned from each of the thirty-two counties, two from the University of Dublin, and two from each of a hundred and seventeen corporations, of which those of Dublin, Cork, Kilkenny, Limerick, Derry, Cashel,

Cashel, and Waterford, are called Cities; and the rest are named Towns and Boroughs †.

The octennial dissolution of the Irish parliament Laws. was enacted in the year 1768, before which time it could be dissolved only at the death, or at the command of the King. By particular acts made in Ireland the statutes then in force in England were adopted, and decisions in common law have been taken as precedents; so that the laws of the two countries are nearly the same. Some difference however obtains, particularly in respect of the fair sex, who are still protected less by the Irish than the English laws in cases of seduction. Yet what can be more evident, than that the first fault of a seduced female has the most rightful claim to the protection of the laws? "because it is incumbent on her seducer to repair the injury done by him; because weakness has a right to indulgence; because the concealing of her pregnancy may endanger her life; because the declaring of her condition destroys her reputation; and because the difficulty of providing for her infant is a great additional misfortune §." But those laws, which give

† Ireland complains with reason that out of its three hundred members of the House of Commons only seventy-two are returned by the free election of the people; for, fifty-three Peers nominate a hundred and twenty-four members and influence ten, and fifty-two Commoners nominate ninety-one, and influence three: Yet while I think that without a reform of parliament in Britain the constitution must fall, in Ireland I know not how such a reform is practicable; the state of the latter country being widely different from that of the former.

§ Comment on the Treatise on Crimes of the Marquis of Beccaria of Milan.

no protection to a wretched female, afford her at the same time no mercy. She is doomed to be burned alive, if she be convicted of killing her infant for the concealment of her shame; though the grounds of conviction may be very dubious, and are often in fact unreal; for, beside other circumstances, a child may be dead-born, when the mother endeavours to deliver herself in privacy without assistance, and what she had intended to conceal from the public, if alive, she would be equally solicitous to remove from their inspection when dead.

**Revenue.**

The annual revenue arising to the King from this island amounts to above two millions of British pounds, which, though felt severely enough by the poorer part of the community, is but little in comparison of what the country might easily afford, if its commerce had been always equally encouraged as that of Britain, and if the men of landed property had been obliged, as in that kingdom, to contribute to the public support.

**Forces.**

Ireland possesses no naval force, except what belongs to her in common with the rest of the British empire. The army stationed for the defence of the island may commonly amount to about twelve thousand, beside sixteen thousand militia.

**Knights.**

An order of knighthood was instituted for Ireland in the year 1783, called the Order of Saint Patrick, consisting of a sovereign and fifteen knights-companions, whose grand master is the Lord Lieutenant.

**Religion.**

Saint Patrick is reported to have been the great apostle of Ireland. Druidism appears to have been the



the religion of the ancient Pagan Irish, as well as of the Britons; and Christianity is said to have been planted among them before the middle of the fifth century, first by some inferior missionaries, and lastly by Saint Patrick, who is reported to have commenced this great work in the year 432. However well or ill founded this account may be ||, we have reason to believe that Paganism was not eradicated, nor, consequently, Christianity universally embraced by the Irish till about the beginning of the seventh century\*. After this, as has been already observed, Ireland became famous for sanctity and learning; but the celibacy of the clergy and conformity with the church of Rome were not established in it, as all who are acquainted with the subject know beyond a doubt, till after the middle of the twelfth century. The Danish colonists in Ireland, who were

|| The existence of Saint Patrick is rendered extremely doubtful, if not evidently fabulous, by the following considerations.

1. In the barbarous ages of Christianity each country feigned and adopted a tutelary saint. 2. Saint Patrick is mentioned in no authentic record written in the fifth, sixth, seventh, or eighth, centuries, or in any time during the space of four hundred years after he was supposed to have preached, though Bede and other ecclesiastical writers flourished in that time, who would not have suffered him to pass unnoticed if they had known any such saint. 3. An apostle from Rome would doubtless have established in his churches planted in Ireland a conformity with that of Rome; but the Irish churches differed widely from the Romish, much more nearly resembled the Greek, and acknowledged no supremacy in the Pope till the twelfth century. See Ledwiche's Antiquities, p. 362—378.

\* Campbell, p. 99.

not

not converted from Paganism before the beginning of the eleventh century, appear to have been more amenable to the Roman church, the cause of which may probably have been their connexion with the Danes of England who were spiritually subject to that see.

The Pope's authority was never solemnly recognized in Ireland before the year 1152, when Pope Eugenius deputed Cardinal Papiron his Legate to this country, who held a council at Kells in the county of Meath, and conferred four palls on the four archbishops: and yet, even after this event, the churches of Ireland had neither conformity with the churches of Rome, nor uniformity among themselves; "almost every diocese having a different liturgy, and even particular churches having particular rites, modes, and offices of public devotion. It was reserved for Henry Plantagenet to establish a perfect uniformity†." This he accomplished in his Irish expedition in the year 1171, wherein, though he greatly failed of reducing the country under the temporal subjection of the English crown, he so riveted the fetters of Papal supremacy on the church of Ireland, that even to this day it retains a hold with the majority of the Irish, perhaps more firm than with any other nation in the world.

Since the time of this ecclesiastical conquest of Henry the Second, the church of Ireland has accompanied the church of England in its revolutions;

† Campbell, p. 97.

but no revolution of the church has affected the faith of the great body of the people; the descendants of the ancient Irish, and those also of the old English colonists, immovably adhering to the spiritual slavery of the Roman see. That the reformation of religion, which in the sixteenth century gained a multitude of profelytes in other parts of Europe, made no impression on the Irish, was the natural consequence of the place which they held in the scale of civilization, and their political circumstances. "As the rudeness and ignorance of the Irish was extreme, they were sunk beneath the reach of that curiosity and love of novelty, by which every other people in Europe had been seized at the beginning of that century, and which had engaged them in innovations and religious disputes, with which they were still so violently agitated. The ancient superstition, the practices and observances of their fathers, mingled and polluted with many wild opinions, still maintained an unshaken empire over them; and the example alone of the English was sufficient to render the reformation odious to the prejudiced and discontented Irish †."

As the ignorance and barbarism of the Irish precluded the admission of the reformed doctrines at first, so afterwards were they rendered impregnable to all conviction by the agency of numerous emissaries, industriously, from political motives, educated for that purpose in foreign seminaries, and sent into Ireland. These were instructed to labor by

† Hume's History of Britain.



every artifice to infuse into the breasts of the Catholics the most rancorous malevolence possible against those who were denominated Heretics; the fruits of which diabolical perversion of religion were fully displayed in the massacre of 1641. Too promotive of the views of foreign potentates inimical to Britain were stupidly and unintentionally some acts of the legislature, which, by laying unnecessary restraints on the Catholics, and denying them the means of rational education at home, confirmed their aversion to a Protestant government, and contributed largely to perpetuate their ignorance and consequent bigotry. These restrictions have, after some previous relaxations, been happily removed in the year 1793; and I have little doubt that the Catholics of the next generation will be too enlightened to be any longer the dupes of foreign artifice, and not to see where lies the real interest of their country.

Church  
establish-  
ment.

The established religion of Ireland is the same with that of the church of England; but its professors are comparatively few; about three fourths of the whole Irish nation being Catholics. The Protestants are far more numerous in the northern counties than elsewhere, and, next to them, in some of the eastern, particularly those of Wexford and Wicklow. The established church is graced with a splendid hierarchy, the annual revenues of whose sees taken together amount to at least seventy-four thousand pounds. "The first preachers of Christianity in Ireland established a great number of bishoprics, which gradually coalesced into the thirty-

two

two dioceses, which have for several centuries constituted the ecclesiastical division of the kingdom. But when the country became impoverished and depopulated by the perpetual feuds and frequent civil wars with which it was desolated for ages, it was found necessary at different periods to unite some of the poorest of these sees, in order that the bishops might have a competence to support the dignity and hospitality incumbent on their high station: and hence it comes that there are only twenty-two prelates in the church of Ireland, twenty sees being united under ten bishops. These causes having had the same operation with respect to parishes, the two thousand four hundred and thirty-eight parishes form not quite twelve hundred benefices; many having been consolidated by the Privy Council from time to time under the authority of an act of parliament; and many others, though but Episcopally united, having been considered only as one living time out of mind.

This kingdom is divided, ecclesiastically as well as civilly, into four provinces; but the civil and ecclesiastical boundaries are far from coinciding. An archbishop presides over each. The seven bishops of the northern province are suffragans to the Archbishop of Armagh, who is Lord, Primate and Metropolitan of all Ireland. The Archbishop of Dublin is Lord Primate of Ireland, and has three suffragan bishops in the eastern province. The southern province with its five suffragans is under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Cashel, Lord Primate of Munster; and the Archbishop of Tuam,  
Lord

Lord Primate of Connaught, presides over the three bishops of the western province. The number of deanries in this kingdom is thirty-three, and of arch-deaconries thirty-four: but the archdeacons have not a visitatorial jurisdiction; the government of the church of Ireland, which is in most things conformable to that of England, differing with respect to visitations: for, in Ireland the bishops hold each a visitation annually, and the archbishop visits his suffragans every third year §." The churches of the kingdom amount to a thousand and one or two over; the glebe-houses, whose number is on the encrease, to above three hundred and fifty. Above three hundred and sixty of the benefices are destitute of glebe; and two-sevenths of the tythes of the whole kingdom are impropriate, or the property of laymen ||.

The number of the clergy of the established church of all ranks taken together can hardly exceed two thousand. The benefices of the unmitred clergy vary in value from about fifteen or sixteen hundred to one hundred pounds annually. A few are even below that value. The collective yearly revenues of all the unmitred clergy, including the tythes of impropriate livings, which ought to belong to clergymen, may amount to between seven and eight hundred thousand pounds. The stated salary of a curate is fifty pounds: very few curates have more: some have even less; and what has with

§ Beaufort, p. 104, 105.

|| Beaufort, p. 138.



truth been said of the South-British clergy, is more fully applicable to the Irish, who are almost all sons of gentlemen, liberally educated; that many a man, whose talents, erudition, and urbanity, would have rendered him in another department an object of high esteem and respect, has died unnoticed and unknown in the function of a cure, after a life of labor, poverty, and contempt. Nor can a bishop always prevent such instances in his diocese. A philanthropic prelate almost always finds so great number of unprovided clergy bequeathed to him by his predecessors, that more than to apply a partial remedy to the evil is beyond his power.

The King is the head of the Irish, in the same manner as of the South-British church, and has not only all the bishoprics in his absolute donation, but also many other ecclesiastical benefices. For the names of the bishoprics, their revenues, and other particulars, see the tables at the end of this volume.

The bishops take place according to the date of their consecration, except that the bishop of Meath has precedence of all the Irish bishops, and the second place is held by the bishop of Kildare, who is also always Dean of Christ's-church in Dublin. The diocese of Meath has a singular constitution, being destitute of a Dean and Chapter, the want of which is supplied by a Synod, of which every incumbent is a member, and the archdeacon president.

How much or how little the splendid ecclesiastical <sup>Literature.</sup> establishment of Ireland may have served to excite the literary genius of its inhabitants, I must not pretend to determine: but certain it is that, though  
this

this country has produced some respectable writers, a few of even eminent merit, and can perhaps justly boast of a more learned body of clergy collectively considered than any other country of Europe, yet the Irish nation has by no means hitherto made a conspicuous figure in the literary world\*. Learning is cultivated in the noblest manner in the prime seminary of the kingdom, the University of Dublin; but the fostering sun of favor is mostly wanting, and the plants, however vigorous, can seldom attain maturity. A brighter period, however, seems to be fast approaching, and the nation in this, as in other respects, is rousing itself from that state of torpor in which it has so long languished. But much, very much, are the majority of the lower classes of people unfurnished with useful information; and even in the middle ranks the general mode of instruction is very defective in this respect, inasmuch that, without regard to the variety of the talents and destinations of the learners, they all alike spend their precious years in the acquisition of dead lan-

\* In a certain periodical publication the number of readers, or those who purchase books for intellectual amusement, in the British islands is stated in this proportion; thirteen in South-Britain, six in North-Britain, and one in Ireland. I fear the calculation is too near the truth. I am ashamed of the gross barbarism of great numbers of my countrymen, many a one of whom spends thousands of pounds in bestial gratifications, who could not part with even five shillings for a book. Many instances indeed of another taste are found; otherwise what a scene of brutality would Ireland be! But the number of these is too small to give any encouragement to literature.

guages,

guages, by which means great numbers entirely lose that labor and time which might have been applied to vastly more useful purposes.

Literature, though elsewhere in general in this University-kingdom destitute of encouragement, is amply, yet ty. not even there so extensively as we should wish, supported with endowments within the walls of the University of Dublin, the only university in Ireland, consisting of one college which bears the name of Trinity. This college, founded by Elizabeth in the year 1592, but since that time new-modelled, is, as a corporation which returns members to parliament, composed of a Provost, seven Senior Fellows, fifteen Junior Fellows, and seventy inferior members stiled Scholars of the House. The annual revenue of the provost is between two and three thousand pounds, and that of a senior fellow six or seven hundred. The salary of a junior fellow is less than a hundred pounds, but he may sometimes gain five or six hundred by pupils. Vacant fellowships are filled by election, after a trial of abilities and learning by a public examination of the candidates, more severe than any elsewhere ever known. The course of reading in which they are examined is so extensive and so judiciously planned, that the mind has thereby an opportunity of making an ample essay of its powers in every direction, and of pursuing with all advantage whatever it may afterwards choose for the more immediate object of its attention and study.

The students and other members of the college, who, all taken together, amount to near a thousand



in number, wear black gowns as an academical uniform. Many of them are accommodated with lodging in the commodious and beautiful buildings of the university; many lodge in the city, and some remain most of the year in the country. I am very sorry to have to say that this capital university, dignified with a noble plan of education, and nobly endowed, labours under some radical defects in the constitution of its government, which in some degree poison this grand fountain of literature, and consequently call aloud to the legislature for a reform.

Inhabi-  
tants.

From the history of this island it is evident that the Irish, like other nations of Europe, are a heterogeneous people, composed of Celtic and various Teutonic, Scythic, or Gothic tribes. For the sake of perspicuity it may be necessary to distinguish them into two classes, the old Irish and the Modern. By the modern Irish are here meant the descendants of those British colonists who settled in Ireland since the accession of Queen Elizabeth, when the reformation received its establishment in Britain. These are almost all Protestants, and resemble the British people from whom they are descended, in persons, apparel, and most of their customs. They dwell promiscuously with the old Irish in most parts of the kingdom, but by far the greater number are in the northern counties, They are numerous also, but in a less degree, in some of the eastern, particularly the counties of Wexford and Wicklow. By much the greater part of the modern Irish in the north are the offspring of Lowland Scots; but many  
are

are also of English extraction, particularly in the counties of Derry and Armagh. Those too of this class who inhabit the east are mostly of English origin.

Under the appellation of Old Irish are comprehended not only the descendants of the ancient Celtic tribes, and those of the Teutonic race, who under the denominations of Firbolgs, Danaans, Normans, Ostmen, and other names, fixed themselves at different periods on the coasts, but also those of the Welch, English, and other British emigrants, who planted themselves in Ireland before the reformation. Most of these are Catholics; so that the two classes might almost be distinguished by the denominations of Catholics and Protestants.

From the various origin of the people here denominated Old Irish some variety is to be expected in their personal traits, though the different tribes have been mingled some centuries. Those who inhabit the south and the west seem to be chiefly the descendants of the ancient Celtic tribes. Among them prevails, more than among the rest of the Irish, black lank hair, dark eyes, and a thin make. Many of them have also an oval visage and grave aspect. In the east and north this class of people have doubtless a greater mixture of Teutonic blood. In these parts of Ireland the characteristics above-described are not predominant. In some, as in the counties of Meath and Louth, a contrary configuration takes place, a squat body, thick limbs, and a broad visage. In some of the eastern parts a great mixture of English blood is observable, as in the county of

Wexford and the neighbouring territories, where great numbers, who consider themselves the descendants of the ancient Irish, have English names, and resemble the English in their persons. Many others, who have Irish names, display the same resemblance from a participation of English blood.

The Irish of all classes collectively taken are various in stature, but are supposed to be in general somewhat lower than the English. The common people are generally muscular, hardy, robust, and of great agility. Their complexions are fair and clear, excepting the tarnish of the laboring ranks occasioned by smoke and dirt the consequence of poverty†. This poverty, which so depresses the common people of Ireland, is less severe in the east, and in the northern manufacturing counties, than in other parts. They universally use the English dress, excepting a few trifling differences among the old Irish, and by no means universal even among them. One of these is the Kirch or Kercher, which is a piece of linen worn by the women, pinned on

† The Author of the Philosophical Survey of the South of Ireland, observing the splendor of the great and the sordid penury of the low, conceived the just picture of the Irish nation to be that of a woman of exquisite beauty, her head and neck richly attired; her bosom full, but meanly dressed; and her lower parts emaciated with all the symptoms of squalor and indigent sloth. But the people of the northern manufacturing counties must be in some measure exempt from this representation; for, few people of their rank make so decent a figure as the working people of these counties, on Sundays, and other times when they appear dressed.



the head and falling down a little way behind. Another is the brogue worn by both sexes, which is a rude kind of shoe without a heel, occasionally stuffed in part with straw. A third is a kind of cloak, or long outside coat, of dark frize, used by the peasants of the south and west. In fact the common people in general, especially toward the south, have the absurd custom of carrying, even in the hottest and driest weather, a great heavy outside coat over their other clothes. The females also in hot and cold, dry and wet weather indifferently, cover themselves, when they go from home, with a great cloth cloak mostly red.

The English language, but with a different tone <sup>Lan-</sup> of voice, and a different pronunciation of the two <sup>guage,</sup> first vowels †, is spoken by all in Ireland who rank in any degree above the vulgar. It is the only language of the modern Irish, and of great numbers also of the old Irish in the north and east; but most of the latter class can converse in both the English and Irish tongues; and some in the south and west can speak only Irish. This ancient dialect of the Celtic falls fast into disuse; great numbers of the present generation, whose parents conversed in this language, being totally unacquainted with it. Both languages vary in dialect in the different parts of the island. The English tongue of the northern counties partakes more or less of the dialect of the

† Some people, who affect the South-British pronunciation without knowing the rules, render themselves ridiculous by pronouncing hat and hand—het and hand; table and stable—teeble and steeble, &c.

Lowland Scots. In the south and west it is pronounced with a tone totally different, called a Brogue.

Food.

The gentry of Ireland use the same kind of food as those of England, but are generally much less addicted to frequent or excessive eating. The peasantry chiefly subsist on potatoes and oatmeal. The latter, baked into broad cakes, or boiled into stirabout, as in the Scottish and northern English counties, is more used in the northern parts of Ireland than in the southern, where potatoes constitute the great support of life. Butchers-meat is but little within the reach of the Irish peasants, especially in the west and south, where they commonly taste it only twice in the year, at Christmas and Easter, at which times they consider it as an indispensable article, and must procure it if possible. The rest of the year they content themselves with potatoes, relished with herrings or buttermilk, or even sometimes merely seasoned with salt, when nothing better is procurable. What agricultural work these poor people perform on their slender diet, is really surprising; as also what rents they pay, without capital, by force of laborious diligence and excessive parsimony, from farms on which English tenants with capital, if they were obliged to pay as much, would break, or starve, or both.

Manners.

Hospitality is ascribable to the Irish of all ranks, and drunkenness is with too much justice chargeable on the nation; but this brutal and stupid vice, so degrading to human nature, so characteristic of barbarism, and so noxious to society, as well as subversive

versive of individual dignity, has much declined, and is more declining, among the gentry as civilization advances. Unfortunately drunkenness prevails highly still among the common people, encouraged, to the prodigious detriment of health and morals, by the abundance of whiskey distilled in the kingdom. The legislature is supposed to be able in great measure to correct this lamentable abuse, by the discouragement of this fiery spirit and the favoring of brewed liquor; but this might occasion some inconvenience with respect to the revenue; and some may think, though none will say, what are the health and morals of the people in comparison of this?

The old Irish retain some ancient customs. One of these, which is also found to prevail in several other parts of the world, and is gradually falling into disuse in Ireland, is that of employing female mourners, who attend the bodies of the deceased with a very loud funereal howl, varied with doleful modulations, and, to such as have been early accustomed to hear it, not at all disagreeable. A woman commonly presides over the chorus, who, during the intervals between the ululations, utters a kind of extemporaneous verses, or sentences, in praise of the dead. This ancient howl, called by some the Irish cry, and by the old natives the Ullagoan, resembling in sound the Ololuzo of the ancient Grecians, is varied in the different parts of the country, and is not always accompanied with verses or sentences,

English



English manners and ideas are continually gaining ground among the Irish. The nobility differ scarcely at all, and the gentry very little, from those of South-Britain; but the gentry, though they are gradually improving, are still inferior in frugality to the English, and more addicted to duelling and other irregularities. They are not in the least surpassed by their English neighbours in their fondness, or at least an affectation of it, for hunting, cock-fighting, and horse-racing. Numbers of gentlemen, and many also who can hardly be accounted of that rank, often from a ridiculous affectation of appearing great in this barbaric manner, encumber their families, and pester their neighbours, with hunters and packs of hounds, when all around them well know that their fortunes are ill adapted to such useless expence, and that their families require attentions of another kind §.

§ Doctor Crumpe, in his *Employment for the people of Ireland*, a work which was not published until I had written this account of Ireland, thus speaks of the country gentlemen.—“ Their husbandry differs little from that of the cottagers who surround them: their profits, instead of being so usefully employed, are expended in idle dissipation and extravagance. The yell of a pack of starving beagles is more pleasing to their ears than the song of the ploughman: The sight of their fellow-sportsmen, drenched to insensibility in whiskey, more pleasing to their eyes than luxuriant crops and well cultivated fields. They are the class among whom what remains of the ferocious spirit of drinking, which formerly disgraced the kingdom, is still to be found: they are those from whom principally emanate all the bad consequences we have already ascribed to oppression, dissipation, extravagance, and pernicious example.” p. 237.

The

The cruelty of this amusement is as little considered by these people as by their hounds, though very little reflection suffices to convince us that "it is hardly possible to conceive any greater agony than that which is endured by a hare during a long chase. Flying for hours together before a whole multitude of its destroyers, having its ears pierced and its heart distracted with the war-hoop of these savage pursuers, with the certainty that a painful death awaits it, exhausted with fatigue, incapable of proceeding, yet not daring to stop, convulsed in every fibre, and sinking under the terror of instant destruction, it is at length seized by its pursuers with savage exultation ||." American savages have sometimes taken Britons in war and tortured them to death: for such atrocities words are wanting to express our horror: yet where is the difference? The venatic American is incited by a thirst of vengeance against a formidable enemy: the venatic Briton by a mere motive of amusement or vanity against a most harmless animal.

As numbers of the gentry, and those who imitate them in their defects, find such entertainment in the sufferings of the timid hare and deer; so the vulgar are not less delighted by an amusement of the same kind, the torturing of the bull, that noble animal by which so many services are rendered to mankind, and which, in retribution, is exposed to be torn and worried in a horrible manner by dogs, amid the savage rejoicings of brutal spectators, who

|| Groenvelt's Letters on France and England.

view

view the woful spectacle as a capital piece of sport. But the Irish are not alone to be stigmatized for cruelty to animals : they exceed not in this their English neighbours, and bear but a portion of that barbarism, which, notwithstanding strong partial illuminations continually bursting more and more through the gloom, still envelopes in a considerable degree the most refined nations of the world.

The lower kind of Irish gentry have commonly a better address, and more urbanity of demeanor, than those of similar fortune among the English. The shopkeepers and others of the mercantile profession, particularly the citizens of Dublin, possess the same superiority over their English compeers ; but are inferior in what is more essential to their business, frugality and attention. I am sorry to have to observe that not only the Irish gentry, but even the nobility, who ought surely to have a proper respect to their own consequence, are apt to be influenced, even to a most servile minuteness, in their modes of dress and living, (of which an extraordinary instance took place some years ago,) by the example of a Lord Lieutenant ; who is plainly no more than a nobleman like one of themselves, appointed for a time to the discharge of an important and lucrative office.

Some difference of manners is observable in the Old Irish, or rather Roman Catholic, gentry and mercantile people, from those of a similar situation among the modern Irish Protestants. But as a more equal participation of rights is happily now admitted, and consequently a more unreserved intercourse  
is



is to be expected, we may hope to see all distinctions daily to diminish. The Catholic gentry, partly from old feudal notions, and partly from the intercourse, which, before the French revolution, they had with France, where many of them received their education, have as yet in general a greater degree of ancestral pride, and are more apt to affect an external polish of manners; while mercantile people of this persuasion, who by fortune or situation have not had an opportunity of a polite intercourse, are inferior in urbanity, and superior in frugality, to their equals among the Protestants.

The common people of Ireland, and in general all who are below the rank of gentry, differ considerably from the English, and still more among themselves. The main difference in the latter respect is marked, on one side, in the descendants of the ancient Celts who inhabit the south and west, and, on the other, in the progeny of the Lowland-Scots who dwell in the north. The rest of the nation partake in intermediate degrees of the characters of both, but a great majority approximate to that of the former.

The descendants of the Celts, who inhabit the south and west of Ireland, have in their composition an uncommon share of vivacity; but have little of that alertness in business, which the English, who are a much more phlegmatic people, commonly display; for they are of a lounging disposition, averse from industrious application, and lazy in work; but in plays and mirthful pastimes their spirits rise with such violent ebullitions, as even extreme

treme penury cannot repress. For their want of industry, however, they are not to be blamed, for doubtless nothing but adequate encouragement is wanting to render them as industrious as any other people\*. They are warm in their affections and vindictive; fond of society and extremely hospitable. Even the lowest vulgar have a kind of natural politeness, a courteous civility of demeanor, and a prompt elocution, with little idea of bashfulness. They are loquacious and extremely inquisitive about news, being indued with an ample portion of idle curiosity.

Having been at no very distant period accustomed to a kind of feudal tyranny under their landlords, they are respectful, supple, and prone to adulation toward their superiors. They have a high respect for ancestry, and high, but erroneous notions of honor: for instance, they account it base to be-

\* What incentives they may have to industry, the reader may judge from the following picture drawn by Doctor Crumpe, a picture indeed still oftener presented in the western parts of the island, where he lives, than in the eastern where I happen to dwell. "Behold the Irish husbandman sally forth to his work, barefoot and covered with rags: behold his ruinous hovel built of mud, covered with weeds, and pervious to every shower that falls and every pinching gale that blows. Behold him seated, after a hard day's labor, by a fire gleaned, perhaps, from the furze-break that overspreads his lands, involved in smoke, surrounded by a naked offspring, and sharing among them his dry and scanty meal. Look at his farm; a car thrown across a gap protects, in place of gates, the superior verdure of some reserved pasture; at which his lean horse, if such he possess, or starving cow, casts a hungry and desponding eye." p. 225.

tray

tray the lurking place of a criminal who disturbs the peace of society, but not dishonorable to plunder the unhappy crew of a wrecked vessel. They have a propensity to oppose the execution of the laws; are great bigots in religion, very superstitious †, and are excessively addicted to lying and swearing. They are also addicted to drunkenness and quarrels; frequently fighting in large parties, at fairs and other places of public meeting, with desperate fury; and are perhaps of all people the most dexterous and formidable in the use of the cudgel, which is their usual weapon on such occasions. I am happy, however, to observe that this detestable custom of mutual battery has much declined within my own memory, and that quarrels and broken heads, though still too frequent, are much less so than formerly.

The offspring of the Lowland-Scots, who reside in the north of this island, differ widely in many respects from the character above described, and are to be regarded as a most valuable part of the community; but their value is to be estimated, as that of ore is by miners, not by the splendor, but the weight ‡. Habituated to the austere discipline of

† Instances of the superstition of these poor people are innumerable. I shall mention one which has happened in my neighbourhood. In the church yard of Ferns the earth which rests on the coffin of a deceased priest, who, when alive, had partaken more of the jolly Combibo than the Saint, is supposed to have been so sanctified by its holy depositum, as to cure all diseases, and is given boiled in milk to various patients, insomuch that all the earth which lay above the level of the ground, has been removed, and a considerable hollow formed in the grave.

‡ See Hamilton's Letters on the coast of Antrim, whose observations coincide with my own.

the



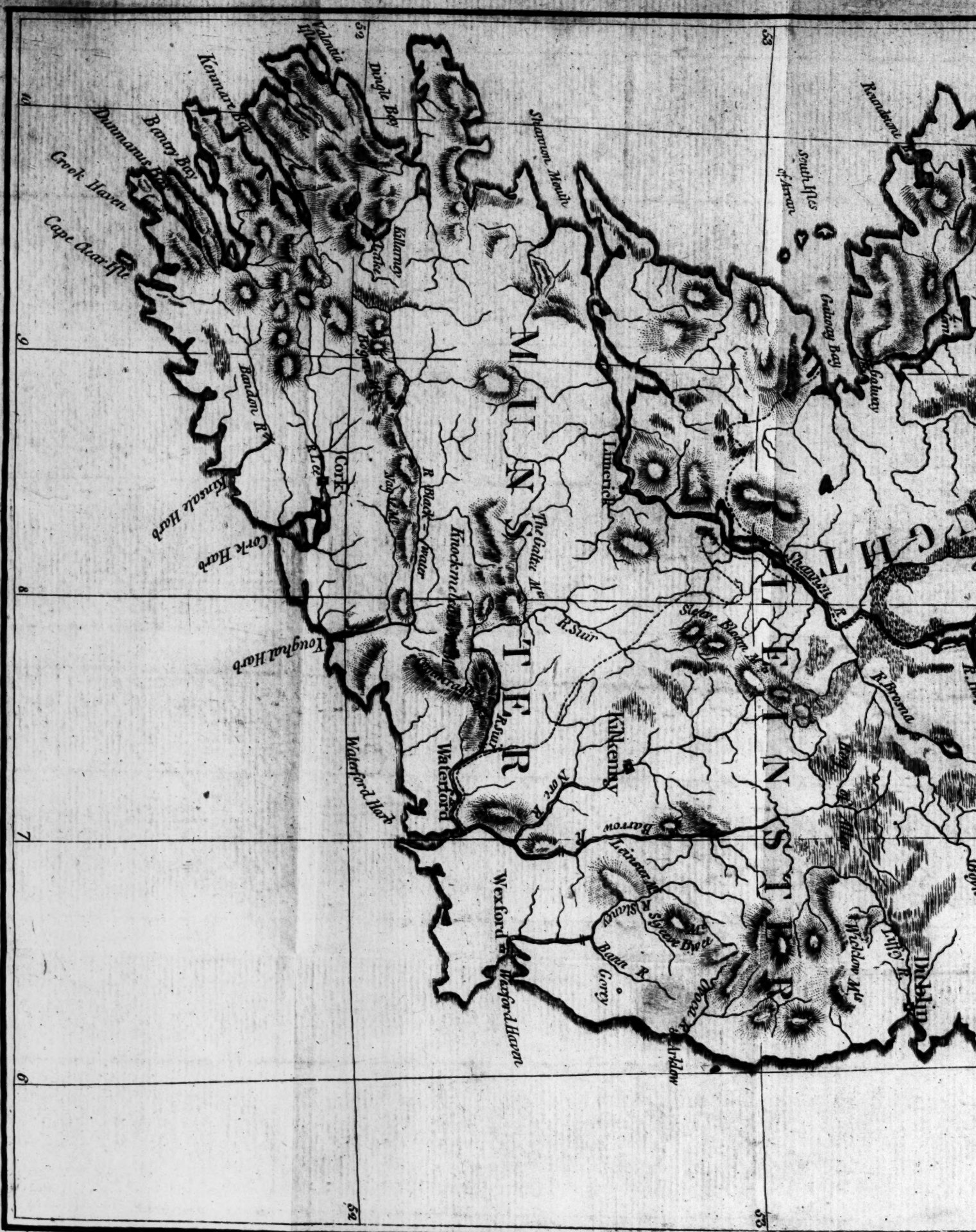
## THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

the Presbyterian church, and the bold idea of rights and privileges which seems hardly separable from it, they are rigid in their manners, blunt and somewhat ungracious in their demeanor, and sometimes apt to be litigious. They are acute, but not fraudulent in their dealings. They hold swearing, sports on Sundays, and other such levities, in abhorrence. They are industrious; have much plain honesty, and not a little of what may be termed substantial civility unembellished by courtesy.

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THE  
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THOUGH numerous, are so small as to merit very little notice. Most of those, which can from their magnitude claim attention in any degree, lie to the west of Ireland. In the bay of Bantry are Whiddy and Beer-island. The latter, six miles long, forms with the main land the excellent harbour of Beerhaven. The former less in size, is remarkable for large sheep which it feeds. Valentia, on the coast of Kerry, five miles long, is tolerably cultivated and inhabited; parted from the main land



A MAP of IRELAND principally intended to show the position of the CHIEF GROVES of MOUNTAINS and the Courses of the greater Rivers. Copied with some additions from Beaupre's small Map, by permission.







land by a channel half a mile broad, through which the sea runs like a river, and which constitutes a fine harbor. The southern Isles of Arran, three in number beside some islets, lie in the mouth of Galway-bay. They are very fertile, yielding a small kind of oats without any husk, and are remarkable for fine calves. On the coast of Mayo is the great isle of Aghill, ten miles in length and of a mountainous face. On the coast of Donegal is Tory island, six miles from the nearest point of the main land, and Arranmore with a cluster of smaller isles, on one of which, called Rutland, a small town has been lately built to promote the fishery of herrings.

Perhaps a small island on the coast of Kerry, named the Great Skelig, ought not to be omitted, since, with ninety fathoms of ocean close around, it consists of two immense pointed rocks of so tremendous an altitude, that, from the top of the greater, the high mountains of the main land appear like low houses overlooked from the lofty dome of a cathedral.

The inhabitants of the small islands on the coasts of Ireland are mostly of the ancient Irish race and of the Roman Catholic religion, very much under the dominion of their priests, and of such honesty and simplicity of manners as to require little, if at all, the interference of the civil magistrate. At least this is the case in several, particularly in those of Clare and Raghery, whose people, when any of their community proves an incorrigible offender, expel him from their society, and banish him to Ireland. As the two isles of Raghery and Clare are the

the extremes of the whole class of Irish islands, the former being the most northern, the latter the most southern, a very brief account may be added of each.

Clare island, situate five miles southward of the coast of Cork, is about three miles in length, and consists of two peninsulas joined by an isthmus a quarter of a mile over. The southern part of the island, which ends in Cape-clare, or less properly Cape-clear, is mostly a barren rock; but the north has good land, which yields potatoes, barley, and wheat, but not enough for the support of the inhabitants, who consist of about four hundred families, and seek their subsistence chiefly by fishing §.

Raghery, severed from the northern coast of Antrim by a channel three miles broad, in which are many contrary currents, is near five miles long, three quarters of a mile in breadth, and is bent near the middle into an angle, so as to form a bay on the south, opposite to the town of Ballycastle on the main land. Its chalky cliffs, crowned with brown rock, afford to the approaching navigator a very curious and picturesque view. On the western end, where it is exposed to the fury of the prevailing wind and swell of the ocean, its cliffs rise abruptly from the water; but in the east it dips to the level of the sea, and presents to the eye many curious arrangements of columnar basaltes, which abound in these parts. The inhabitants, consisting of a hundred and fifty families, or twelve hundred persons,

§ Smyth's History of Cork.

manufacture such a quantity of kelp, that the price of it often pays nearly the rent of the whole island, which is six hundred pounds yearly, and in favorable seasons they export barley to the same amount ||.

### THE HEBUDES,

OR Western Scottish Islands, corruptly termed Hebrides \*, lie variously scattered in that part of the ocean which washes the western shores of North-Britain. Their number is conceived to exceed three hundred, but, with the omission of those which are quite inconsiderable, it may be reduced to between thirty and forty. The area of the whole may contain two millions of English acres. They are universally, excepting a few small copses, destitute of trees, though, from the timber lying beneath the surface of their bogs, it is evident that they formerly abounded in wood. They are generally rough with hills or with rocks, and in some are high and craggy mountains, on which Atlantic storms burst

|| See Hamilton's Letters on the coast of Antrim.

\* The corruption of the name arose from an incorrect edition of Solinus printed at Paris in 1503, and followed by Boethius. See Pinkerton's Inquiry into the History of Scotland, vol. 2. p. 301.



with tremendous fury, particularly in the autumnal months, deluging the land with torrents of rain.

Many of these isles are greatly incommoded, like the neighbouring North-British Highlands, with frequent showers for seven or eight months in the year, or even longer; but this is not equally the case in all; for many of them consist of low land over which the clouds are wafted unbroken, and in which generally less rain falls in summer than their inhabitants wish †. The air in them all is very moist and very temperate. The snow seldom lies many hours unthawed in the low isles, and the cattle remain unhoused throughout the year.

Productions.

The high winds and rains to which the Hebrides are subject, are unfavorable to husbandry; but the condition of the low islands is in this respect much preferable to that of the rest; the harvest in some of these being neither late nor precarious. The soil is not unfertile: in many places it is even highly prolific. Manures are in abundance; shelly sand, limestone, or marl, being every where easily procurable. But nature as yet offers her stores in vain. Agriculture has made very little progress; scarcely any thing like farms, or good husbandry, appearing. The peasantry, oppressed with heavy rents, and destitute of convenient markets for the sale of their productions, feel all the hardships of labor without its rewards, and live in extreme indigence.

Oats, bere, barley, and potatoes, are cultivated in patches; but a wretched management appears in

† Anderson's View of the Hebrides and Western Islands of Scotland.

many instances, one of which is that in many of the islands, instead of threshing, they burn the corn in such a manner that the chaff is consumed and the grain left intire. Sometimes the heads only, cut from the stalks, are committed to the flames; but sometimes also the intire sheaves, so that the straw is totally lost. They are more œconomical in the making of ale, which is frequently brewed from a composition of two-thirds heath, and one-third malt †.

The native sheep of these islands, like those of the neighbouring mountainous tracts in the main land, bear fleeces of an extraordinary silky softness and elasticity §. But small is the profit which as yet redounds from this natural advantage. Great numbers of neat cattle are exported in a lean condition to be fatted in more improved pastures. Among the articles of export are also linen yarn, fern ashes, and kelp. The last annually augments in quantity. These islands also yield eider down ||,

† Pennant's Tour in Scotland.

§ Anderfon.

|| The eider down grows on the breast of a species of duck, the male of which equals the goose in size and abounds in white feathers, but the female resembles the common duck both in size and color. She lays four green eggs in a nest lined with the down above mentioned. Both eggs and down being taken by the inhabitants, she repairs the damage with a fresh lining of down and the same number of eggs; of which also being robbed, she performs the operation a third time, but is then furnished with down from the breast of the male. She is then suffered to retain her nest undisturbed; otherwise she never after builds in the same place.

and their seas teem in a surprizing manner with fish, which might be rendered an object of the most gainful industry.

History.

The history of these islands, named Ebudæ by the ancients, is very obscure. The most probable opinion is, that the Picts from Scandinavia visited and colonized them about three hundred years before the birth of Christ, and almost abandoned them some centuries after. In the ninth century they were in the possession of Norwegian pirates, and about the year 910 they were conquered by Harold Harfagre King of Norway. At what time they received their Celtic inhabitants is uncertain; but they remained with the Norwegians in an unsettled state of connexion or dependance till after the middle of the thirteenth century, when, partly by conquest and partly by purchase, they were annexed to Scotland in the year 1266. They ever since have constituted politically a part of North-Britain, and are incorporated in the thirty-three Scottish coun-

People.

ties. Their inhabitants, computed to be at least eighty thousand in number, are the same people with the Highland-Scots, and dwell mostly in scattered hamlets of seven or eight miserable cabins each; scarcely above three or four towns being found in all these islands, and very few such collections of houses as come within the rank of villages. With respect to religion, the majority are Calvinists of the Scottish church, and the rest Roman Catholics. Some islands are wholly inhabited by the former, and others by the latter.

The



The principal of the Hebrides are Arran, Ila, Jura, Mull, Skie, and that long chain of isles which is collectively termed the Long Island. Beside these, the isles of Iona, Staffa, and Hirta, may be noticed, not on account of their magnitude, but some particular circumstances.

Arran, in length twenty-four, in breadth, where Arran, widest, fourteen miles, bears in a distant view an aspect of most savage sterility, consisting mostly of a series of high mountains, which run in transverse ridges, their sides sloping toward the sea, their summits appearing broken, ferrated, or spiring\*. By much the highest of all, named Goatfield, stands near the center of the island, composed of immense piles of moor stone in form of wool packs, and commanding a view not only into Ireland and Man, but even into South-Britain. Beside many other inlets in the coasts of this island is the admirable harbor of Lamlash in the South-east, of a form somewhat circular, nine miles in compass, surrounded by mountains, sheltered at its mouth by an island of the same name, and capable of containing five hundred ships at once with the utmost safety and convenience†. Many rivulets descend from the mountains, and four or five lakes of fresh water are found in the island. From the great height of the land the winter is particularly severe; the snow sometimes remaining thirteen weeks. The interior parts are uninhabited. The people, all Protestants, in

\* Pennant.

† See a Treatise called the Fisheries Revived.

number about seven thousand, dwell on the coasts in dispersed hamlets. This island with the isle of Bute and some others of inconsiderable size constitute the county or shire of Bute.

Ila.

Ila, Isla, or Ilay, situate seven leagues west of Kintyre, at least twenty-four miles long and sixteen broad, containing about two hundred thousand English acres, is entered on the south and west by two large bays, which, leaving between them an isthmus of only two miles broad, make the south-western part of the island a peninsula. The land of Ila on the north and east is rough with hills of no great height, but is elsewhere mostly flat. It abounds in little lakes and streams. The former are said to amount to near a hundred; of the latter the greatest called the Lagan or Lyfa runs a course of sixteen miles, and falls into one of the large bays above mentioned. The soil is naturally so good that it might be rendered by industry very fertile, but it remains in many places abandoned to sterility, and covered with heath. Improvement however has commenced: a town begins to rise among these hitherto neglected wilds: a mine of lead is worked, and yarn to the value of some thousands of pounds yearly is exported, together with a considerable quantity of corn †. The inhabitants are Protestants in number about ten thousand. This island, together with Jura, Mull, and some others, is politically united with the shire of Argyle.

Jura.

Jura, extending in length about thirty miles, and in breadth from seven to ten, is parted from Ila by

† Anderfon.

a sound from one to four miles broad, and from the isle of Scarba by the famous channel of Cory Vrechan, about a mile broad, remarkable for a furious current, which renders the strait quite innavigable except in a few hours in the twenty-four §. Jura is divided longitudinally by a chain of mountains, four of which, naked and distinct, appear conspicuous above the rest. Two of these, and another mountain, are named Paps from their exact mammillary form. That of the Paps which is the second in magnitude is found to have an elevation of eight hundred and fifty yards ||; but it is far overtopped by the highest called Ben-an-Oir, which is composed of huge naked stones piled one on another to a stupendous altitude. So many streams descend from the mountains, that not less than ten large rivulets fall into the sea on the eastern side alone. The rude eminences, which render the face of this island so excessively rugged in a distant view, occupy no great part of its surface, which consists in a considerable proportion of naturally good land, but so little improved that the population of the whole isle seems hardly to exceed a thousand persons of all ages and both sexes.

Mull, parted from Argyleshire by a channel not Mull above two or three miles broad in some places, extends both in length and breadth near thirty miles; but is so deeply pierced by two great inlets on the western side, beside some smaller, that scarcely any

§ Martin's Description of the Western Isles, p. 236—238.

|| Pennant.



place in it is four miles distant from salt water. It is very rugged, especially in its interior parts, with rocks, hills, and mountains, one of which, named Benmore, rises to a very considerable altitude. Its most improvable parts are said to be the two opposite extremities of the south-west and north-east; but collectively considered, it seems not greatly favored by nature more than improved by culture. Its horses, of a small size, like all the rest in these islands, have been in much estimation, and are supposed by some to have originated from a few which escaped on shore from ships belonging to the Invincible Armada, which were wrecked on this coast in the year 1558 \*. The island is inhabited by five or six thousand persons, who are Protestants, and have three or four churches for religious worship.

Sky.

Skie, severed from the main land by a channel not quite a mile over in its narrowest part, has a most irregular figure, indented by numerous inlets, which, in some places advancing from opposite sides, leave scarcely two miles breadth of land between them. Its length is almost fifty miles: its breadth extremely unequal, but at a medium about twelve. The country, more especially the interior parts, abounds in bogs, rocks, and mountains. The last form two ranges of great height, between which are large tracts of level and improvable, but as yet unimproved land. Seven of these eminences rise above the rest, and one of these, named Quillin, is the highest of all. The harbors are so numerous that

\* Pennant.

hardly

hardly any place in the island is supposed to be five miles distant from the convenience of a port. Among the innumerable streams which fall from the mountains no less than thirty are said to abound in Salmon. This island is incorporated with the shire of Inverness. Its inhabitants, mostly of the Protestant persuasion, are said by some to be twenty thousand, by others fifteen thousand in number, and to have been reduced to a still lower state in this respect by oppressive rents and emigrations.

Long Island, situate westward of Skie, is in its most extensive signification a chain of islands, extending from south to north two hundred English miles, including about sixteen miles of water. The whole chain is supposed to have been formerly one continuous island, and to have been broken by storms or earthquakes into many. By far the greatest of these, and that to which the title of Long Island particularly belongs at present, is Lewes, consisting of two peninsulas, the northern of which is Lewes properly so called, the southern being denominated Harris. They both together may extend ninety miles in length, and at a medium ten in breadth. The next most considerable are North Uist, South Uist, and Barra; the first about thirteen miles long and five broad; the second thirty miles in length and six in breadth; and the last about fifteen in circuit.

The western coast of this long insular chain is low, flat, and extremely fertile, consisting mostly of shelly sand. Within these flats to the east is a range of shallow fresh water lakes, into which the sea

sea flows at high spring tides. The eastern coast is mountainous and rocky. The grand chain of rocks on this side is broken into irregular chafms, in some of which the sea passes through to the west, separating the islands by narrow channels. Through others it enters beyond the mountains into the interior country, where it widens in such manner as to form capacious harbors †.

These islands belong to the shire of Inverness. Their inhabitants, probably above twenty thousand in number, have mostly hair of a light brown color. The majority are Protestants, but in some of the islands, as Benbecula, are many Catholics. They use in agriculture, previously to the application of the spade or larger plough, a kind of sickle plough called a Ristle, which makes not a furrow, but cuts a deep line, dividing the roots of vegetables interwoven in the soil. Their only town is Stornoway in the east of Lewes properly so called, perhaps containing above two thousand people. At the village of Clafernesh, in the southern part of the same peninsula, is a druidical temple, as fine, as well preserved, and as perfect, but not so lofty, as that of Stonehenge ‡.

Iona.

At the south-western extremity of Mull, from which it is parted by a sound hardly a mile broad, lies the island of Iona, called also Hui and Hy, still better known by the appellation of I-Coluim-Kill, or the Isle of Columba's Church, famous for a

† Anderson.

‡ Martin.



monastery erected here in the sixth century by Saint Columba, many chapels built in succeeding times, a library in which were deposited the archives of the Scottish kingdom, and the sepulchres of ancient Scottish, Irish, and Norwegian kings, who made this holy spot their place of interment. This isle is above two miles long and not quite one broad, and contains near a hundred and fifty inhabitants.

Staffa, situate three leagues noreast of Iona, is a Staffa. diminutive isle a mile long and half a mile broad, inhabited by one family §, and remarkable only for being one intire stack of basaltic pillars, covered with a stratum of brown plumbpudding stone, over which is a shell of fertile earth producing a close pile of grass ||. The pillars appear in natural colonnades, wonderfully magnificent, especially toward the norwest. Of such columns is formed Fingall's-cave, a stupendous and beautiful cavern, three hundred and seventy-feet long, fifty-three broad, and a hundred and seventeen feet high, at the mouth \*. Basaltic pillars are numerous also in the neighbouring isles, as Mull, Egg, Cannay, and others.

§ Pennant.

|| Anderson.

\* Pennant.

Where round the Orcades white torrents roar,  
Scooping with ceaseless rage the incumbent shore,  
Wide o'er the deep a dusky cavern bends  
Its marble arms, and high in air impends;  
Basaltic piers the ponderous roof sustains,  
And steep their massy sandals in the main;  
Round the dim walls, and through the whispering ailes,  
Hoarse breathes the wind, the glittering water boils.

DARWIN'S Botanic Garden.

Hirta,

Hirta.

Hirta, commonly called Saint Kilda, the most western of the Hebrides, three miles long and two broad, rises from the ocean steep and immensely high with five distinct and bare summits, the most elevated of which, called Conagra, is accounted the Teneriff, or highest pinnacle of the British Islands, its elevation above the deep being eighteen hundred yards†. Excepting a bay on the south-east, and a smaller landing place on the north-west, the island is every where totally inaccessible, faced all around with a tremendous barrier of steep rocks, which rise in some places to an astonishing height, and awfully overhang the deep. Here from the brink of an immense precipice, against which mountainous billows exert their whole force, may be contemplated, with full advantage, a boundless ocean in all its wildness of grandeur.

All the land in the island used as arable amounts to about eighty acres, and lies in the eastern side. The same is the only inhabited part; all the people dwelling here together in a small village composed of two rows of flat roofed houses. The number of persons, which in the last century amounted to near two hundred, was found in the year 1756 diminished to eighty-eight. Their dexterity and boldness is altogether astonishing in climbing the frightful precipices in quest of sea fowls and their eggs, which constitute their food during a great part of the year. The multitudes of these birds are prodigious; the vast rocks in the ocean around Hirta being so co-

† Macawley's History of Saint Kilda.

vered with them as to appear like mountains clad in snow. Yet they so intirely disappear in November, that from the middle of that month to the middle of February not one is to be seen. This isle is accounted an appendage of Harris, and is set by lease to a person called the Steward at about eleven pounds yearly rent, who governs the little community with absolute sway.

### THE ORKNEYS,

LYING in the ocean to the north of Britain, are severed from the main by a channel four or five leagues wide, called the Pentland or Pictland Frith, remarkable for its whirlpools and the violence of many contrary currents. The number of islands is supposed to be near eighty, of which only twenty-six are inhabited; the rest consisting of what are called Holms and Skerries. The former are islands intirely consigned to pasturage: the latter barren rocky islets. The area of the whole group may amount nearly to the quantity of two hundred and fifty thousand acres. They are destitute of trees, but, like the Hebudes, bear evident vestiges of former woods. Their surface is in some places level, in some diversified with hills, and no more than four of the islands at the most can with truth be termed mountainous.

Their



Their temperature differs very little from that of the low Hebudes, being mild throughout the year. Their atmosphere seems somewhat less tempestuous. The winds are generally rather brisk than boisterous, blowing commonly from the west between August and March, from the north and noreast between March and May, and the rest of the year from the south and south-east. The sky is often hazed by marine vapors, and frequently illuminated by the Aurora Borealis. The surrounding seas are subject to violent agitations, rising against the rocks, even when the wind is not high, to the elevation of a hundred feet †. The twilights are of long duration; the nights, for near two months about the summer Solstice, being light all through, unless obscured by vapors.

The soil is thin and of various kinds, but the sandy sort predominates. Its fertility is not contemptible, and, though it is little improved, it is superior in this respect to that of the Hebudes. The only sorts of corn here cultivated are oats and bere, the latter of which is termed Big. The exports are in considerable variety, but in very small quantity, consisting of corn, beef, a very bad kind of butter or grease, linen yarn, a fine kind of stockings, kelp, and eider down, with the skins of calves, rabbits, otters, and seals. Herrings and other fish are in vast shoals around the coasts. The islands abound in swine and rabbits, and are said to be destitute of hares, except a few of the Alpine sort in Hoy, deer, foxes, and venomous reptiles.

† Campbell's Polit. Survey, vol. ii. p. 664.

These islands, known to the Romans under the name of Orcades, were visited about the year 78 by a fleet of that nation, but so late as the year 240 they were destitute of inhabitants. They were colonized by the Picts in the fourth or fifth century. They fell under the dominion of Norway, in the ninth, and afterwards, together with that kingdom, became a part of the Danish dominions; but, about the year 1468, they were, by virtue of a treaty of marriage between James the Third of Scotland and Margaret of Norway, annexed to the Scottish realm. Among their monuments of antiquity are conic edifices of an uncommon structure, termed Picts-houses, built of large rough well laid stones, twenty or thirty feet in diameter, beside the walls which are ten or twelve feet thick.

The inhabitants of the Orkneys, between twenty and thirty thousand in number, seem mostly the mixed descendants of Norwegian colonists and Lowland Scots. They use the habits, manners, and religion of the latter people, as also their language; the Old Norns, or Norwegian tongue, which was formerly in use among them, being now almost, or intirely, discontinued. Their complexions are generally fair and florid. They dwell mostly dispersed in hamlets; the only town in all these isles being Kirkwall. The Orkneys contain thirty-six parishes, which form eighteen ministries, and the salaries of the ministers are from fifty to eighty pounds §. These islands together with those of Shetland con-

§ Gough, vol. iii. p. 722. from Lowe's Manuscript.

stitute the shire of Orkney, which is one of the thirty-three North-British counties. Those of this group which may be noticed are South-Ronaldsha, Hoy, Pomona, and Sanda.

South-  
Ronald-  
sha.

South-Ronaldsha, the nearest of all the Orkneys to the main-land of Britain, and one of the most fertile, may be about seven miles long, and from less than two to five miles broad. It contains a few hills, and is furnished with two good harbors. To the south west of this is the small isle of Swinna, remarkable for two dangerous whirlpools on its south-western coast, called the wells of Swinna, caused by tides and eddies in the Shallow-water.

Hoy.

Hoy, about ten miles long and from five to one broad, is at high tides divided into two islands; the southern named Waes or Walls, and the northern Hoy. The former, particularly the southern extremity, is level; but the latter is the most mountainous and romantic tract in all the Orkneys, abounding in precipices and deep vallies. Its highest eminence, which is also the highest in all these islands, is called the Wart-hill, computed to be five hundred and forty yards in height ||, covered with a spongy marsh on the summit, and containing near its top some kind of unknown matter which in the months of May, June, and July, at noon, shines and sparkles in an extraordinary manner, discernible at a great distance, but disappearing on a nearer approach. This phenomenon, termed by the vulgar an Enchanted Carbuncle, was for-

|| Gough from Lowe, vol. iii. p. 723.



merly more brilliant than at present, and has been suspected to be occasioned by the reflection of the rays of the sun from the water falling along a smooth rock, though no such water could on search be discovered \*. Among the antiquities of this island is the Dwarfie-stone, thirty-six feet long, eighteen broad, and nine thick, hollowed within for human habitation, and supposed to have been the mansion of a hermit †. This island has three good harbors, beside some others of less consideration.

Pomona, called also Mainland, by far the greatest Pomona. of the Orkneys, about twenty-four miles long, but of a most irregular figure, not above two miles broad in some places, contains some hills, but is mostly level, and interspersed with little lakes. Nature has furnished it with four harbors, including that of Kirkwall on the north of the island, on the eastern side of which stands the town of that name, the capital of the Orkneys, extending near a mile in length, but narrow, and containing only a little more than about three hundred houses mostly flat-ed.

Sanda, situate in the north of this group, is deep- Sanda. ly indented, and in its form extremely irregular; twelve miles long, from one to three broad; destitute of good harbors, and destitute also of turf, which is a singular and unfortunate circumstance in these islands, where this is the only fuel.

\* Gough, vol. iii. p. 723.

† Gough, vol. iii. p. 723.

## THE

## ISLES OF SHETLAND,

SITUATE eighteen or twenty leagues noreastward of the Orkneys, and forty-four west of Norway, which is to them the nearest part of the continent, are supposed to consist of forty-six islands, beside about thirty holms and forty skerries, and to contain in area near seven hundred thousand English acres. They are at present destitute of trees, but seem to have been formerly in a different condition. They abound in bogs, hills, and more elevated mountains than those of the Orkneys.

This most northern portion of the system of British islands enjoys for more than two months about the summer Solstice almost continual day, the inhabitants being able by the twilight alone to read at midnight when the sky is clear. In the opposite season of the year almost continual night involves the heavens for an equal portion of time; and a tedious winter of seven or eight months, dark and gloomy, with little frost or snow, but with fogs, rain, storms, and a most violently boisterous sea, imprisons the Shetlanders within their islands, precluding all intercourse with other countries during most of that time †. But in this dreary season they  
are

† A remarkable instance of their want of intercourse is, that a Scottish fisherman, who arrived in Shetland in May in the year  
1689,

are not without some comforts; the Aurora Borealis frequently enlightening the sky in a manner inexpressibly beautiful.

Beneath so inclement a sky, where the heat of summer is of short duration and little force, the soil yields only bere and oats; at least agriculture is in a very low state, and no other corn is sown. The pastures are sweet, but the cattle by bad management are extremely small, particularly a breed of sheep, the mutton of which weighs only three or four pounds a quarter §. Very little fodder or shelter is given to the neat cattle, but none to the sheep and horses, numbers of which in severe winters perish by cold and hunger. Partridges, grouse, and heathcocks, or black game, which are found in the Orkneys, appear not in these islands, which also are, or at least some years ago were, destitute of goats, hares, foxes, venomous reptiles, and, excepting a few islands, even rats. The seas around shoal with almost incredible multitudes of fish; and their ports in summer are crowded with many hundreds of Dutch, Swedish, and other vessels engaged in the fishery. Their exports, beside fish, consist chiefly of butter, train oil, fine woolled stockings, some eider down, and the skins of seals and otters. The greater part of the grain consumed in these islands is imported.

1689, and brought information of the expulsion of James the Second, which had happened five months before, was imprisoned by the magistrates as a treasonable carrier of false intelligence, and was in danger of being hanged.

§ Anderson's Agriculture.



The Shetland islands, unknown to the Romans, have had the same fortune as the Orkneys, in their subjection to Norway, and their annexion to the realm of Scotland. They came also under the same proprietor, the Earl of Morton, whose heirs have still retained the property, and have also the patronage of all the ecclesiastical benefices in both groups. The ministers of the Shetland isles are twelve in number, and, together with the minister of Fair Isle, form a presbytery of thirteen.

People.

The inhabitants of these islands, who may amount to above twenty thousand, seem mostly descended from the Norwegians, but have been mixed in later times with the Lowland Scots, whose religion they have adopted, together with their habits, manners, and language. The common people are of a swarthy complexion, are hardy seamen, and subsist chiefly by the fishery. Their common beverage, called Bland, is whey, soured, barreled, and fermented, so as to attain a vinous quality; but since malt liquors have been introduced, this drink is not universally in use. These people, like their neighbours of Orkney, dwell in hamlets or small villages; Larwick being the only town. The principal of these islands are Mainland, Yell, and Unst.

Fair Isle.

Fair Isle may be noticed, situate about midway between the groups of Shetland and Orkney, three miles long, one and a half broad, fenced by rocks on all sides except the eastern, where are two bays; and inhabited by a sober religious people, whose ancestors hospitably received the Duke of Medina Sidonia,

Sidonia, commander of the Invincible Armada, who was wrecked on their coast in 1588.

Mainland, by far the greatest of the Shetland Mainland. islands, extends about fifty miles in length, and is accounted twenty broad, where widest, but is broken by inlets that scarcely any spot in it is two miles distant from salt water, and the whole is but, as it were, a knot of peninsulas. With a coast which is every where, excepting a few places, a rough inaccessible chain of rocks, and with an inland country overspread with mountains and morasses, Mainland is thinly peopled, though it contains much improvable ground near the shores. The inlets of this island form no less than twenty harbors, six of which are remarkably commodious. The town of Lerwick, the only town of these islands, stands on the eastern coast opposite to the great and noble harbor of Brafa-sound, called also Broad-sound, four miles long and from two to half a mile broad, sheltered by the isle of Braffa on the east, and capable of containing above two thousand ships commodiously and safely ||. Lerwick is said to be inhabited by above three hundred families. Scalloway, on the western coast, which was once a town of some consideration, is dwindled to a small village.

Yell, situate noreast-ward of Mainland, sixteen Yell. miles long and five or six broad, is indented with eight considerable harbors and many creeks; is extremely mountainous and boggy, yet contains many tracts of good pasture-ground.

|| Sibbald's Shetland, p. 30.

Unst.

Unst, the most northern of the Shetland isles, and of all the British insular system, about eight miles long and four broad, is parted from Yell by a narrow strait called Bluma-sound, in which, as in several other channels of these islands, runs a very rapid tide. Unst consists mostly of dry, bare, and very rocky ground, and is somewhat less hilly than the rest of this group. It is furnished with two excellent harbors; and, together with the small islands in its vicinity, contains about fifteen hundred inhabitants.



# TABLES OF BRITAIN.

## ENGLAND, WITHOUT WALES,

CONTAINS FORTY COUNTIES OR SHIRES.

| Shires.        | Area in English Acres. | Number of Houses. | Towns.                                                                                                                                                                                                     |
|----------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Cornwall,      | —                      | 28,000            | Launceston, Penzance, Helston, Falmouth, Penryn, Truro, Fowey, Leftwithiel, Bodmin, Liskard, Padstow, Kellington, Saint-Ives, Tregony, Redruth.                                                            |
| Devonshire,    | —                      | 56,500            | Exeter, Plymouth, Barnstaple, Biddiford, Tiverton, Honiton, Dartmouth, Tavistock, Topsham, Okehampton, Ashburton, Crediton, Moulton, Torrington, Totness, Axminster, Plympton, Ilfracomb.                  |
| Dorsetshire,   | 132,000                | 22,000            | Dorchester, Lyme, Sherborn, Shaftsbury, Poole, 7000 souls, Blandford, Bridgeport, Weymouth, Melcomb, Wareham, Winburn.                                                                                     |
| Somersetshire, | 1,075,000              | 44,700            | Bath, Wells, Bristol, Taunton, Bridgewater, Ilchester, Minehead, Milbournport, Glastonbury, Wellington, Dulverton, Dunster, Yeovil, Somerton, Axbridge, Chard, Bruton, Shepton-Mallet, Crosscombe, Froome. |
| Wiltshire,     | 876,000                | 28,000            | Salisbury, Devizes, Marlborough, Malmesbury, Wilton, Chippenham, Calne, Cricklade, Towbridge, Bradford, Warminster.                                                                                        |
| Hampshire,     | —                      | 27,000            | Winchester, Southampton, Portsmouth, Andover, Basingstoke, Christchurch, Petersfield, Lymington, Ringwood, Rumsley, Arlesford.                                                                             |

Berkshire,

| Shires.          | Area in English Acres. | Number of Houses. | Towns.                                                                                                                                                                          |
|------------------|------------------------|-------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Berkshire,       | —                      | 17,000            | Abingdon, Windfor, Reading, Wallingford, Newbury, Hungerford, Maidenhead, Farringdon, Wantage, Oakingham.                                                                       |
| Surrey,          | —                      | 34,500            | Southwark, Kingston, Guildford, Croydon, Epsom, Richmond, Wandsworth, Battersea, Putney, Farnham, Godalmin, Bagshot, Egham, Dorking.                                            |
| Suffex,          | 1,140,000              | 21,600            | Chichester, Lewes, 7000 souls, Rye, East-Grimstead, Hastings, Horsham, Midhurst, Shoreham, Arundel, Winchelsea, Battel, Brighthelmston, Petworth.                               |
| Kent,            | 1,248,000              | 39,400            | Maidstone, Canterbury, Chatham, Rochester, Greenwich, Woolwich, Dover, Deal, Deptford, Faversham, Dartford, Romney, Sandwich, Sheerness, Tunbridge, Margate, Gravesend, Milton. |
| Glostershire,    | 1,100,000              | 27,000            | Gloster, Tewksbury, Cirencester, Campden, Stowe, Berkely, Dursley, Lechlade, Tetbury, Sudbury, Wotton, Marshfield.                                                              |
| Monmouthshire,   | —                      | 65,00             | Monmouth, Chepstow, Caer-Leon, Newport, Abergavenny.                                                                                                                            |
| Oxfordshire,     | —                      | 19,000            | Oxford, Banbury, Banbury, Chipping-Norton, Henly, Burford, Whitney, Dorchester, Woodstock, Tame.                                                                                |
| Buckinghamshire, | 441,000                | 18,500            | Aylesbury, Buckingham, High-Wickham, Great-Marlow, Stony-Stratford, Newport-Pagnel, Eton.                                                                                       |
| Bedfordshire,    | 260,000                | 12,200            | Bedford, Ampthill, Wooburn, Dunstable, Luton, Biggleswade.                                                                                                                      |
| Hartfordshire,   | —                      | 16,000            | Hartford, Saint-Albans, Ware, Hitchin, Baldock, Bishop's Stortford, Berkhamsted, Hemsted, Barnet, Royston.                                                                      |
| Middlesex,       | —                      | —                 | London, Uxbridge, Brentford, Chelsea, Highgate, Hampstead, Kensington, Hackney, Hamptoncourt.                                                                                   |
| Essex,           | —                      | 35,000            | Chelmsford, Colchester, Harwich, Malden, Saffron-Walden, Bocking, Braintree, Stratford.                                                                                         |
| Suffolk,         | —                      | 34,420            | Bury, Ipswich, Sudbury, Leostoff, Aldborough, Bungay, Southwold, Brandon,                                                                                                       |

| Shires.                | Area in<br>English<br>Acres. | Number of<br>Houses. | Towns.                                                                                                                                                        |
|------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                        |                              |                      | don, Halesworth, Mildenhall, Beckles,<br>Framlingham, Stowe-Market, Wood-<br>bridge, Lavenham, Hadley, Long-<br>Melfort, Stratford, Easterberholt.            |
| Norfolk,               | 1,148,000                    | 47,200               | Norwich, Thetford, Lynne, Yarmouth,<br>Fakenham, Cley.                                                                                                        |
| Cambridge-<br>shire,   | —                            | 17,000               | Cambridge—fouls, Ely, Newmar-<br>ket, Royston, Wisbich.                                                                                                       |
| Huntingdon-<br>shire,  | 240,000                      | 8,300                | Huntingdon, Saint-Ives, Kimbolton,<br>Godman, Saint-Neots, Ramsey, Yax-<br>ley.                                                                               |
| Northamp-<br>tonshire, | 550,000                      | 25,000               | Northampton, Peterborough, Daventry,<br>Higham-Ferrers, Brackley, Oundle,<br>Wellingborough, Thrapston, Towca-<br>ster, Rockingham, Kettering, Roth-<br>well. |
| Leicester-<br>shire,   | 500,000                      | 19,000               | Leicester, Melton-Mowbray, Ashby de<br>la Zouch, Bosworth, Harborough.                                                                                        |
| Rutlandshire,          | 100,000                      | 3,300                | Oakham, Uppingham.                                                                                                                                            |
| Lincolnshire,          | 2,042,880                    | 40,600               | Lincoln, Stamford, Boston, Grantham,<br>Croyland, Spalding, New-Sleaford,<br>Great-Grimby, Gainsborough, Louth,<br>Horncastle.                                |
| Nottingham-<br>shire,  | 480,000                      | 18,000               | Nottingham, Southwell, Newark, East-<br>Redford, West-Redford, Mansfield;<br>Tuxford, Worktop, Blithe.                                                        |
| Darbyshire,            | 680,000                      | 21,200               | Darby, Chesterfield, Wirksworth, Ash-<br>burn, Bakewell, Balfover, Buxton.                                                                                    |
| Warwick-<br>shire,     | 670,000                      | 22,000               | Warwick, Coventry, Birmingham, Strat-<br>ford on Avon, Tamworth, Aulcester,<br>Nuneaton, Atherton.                                                            |
| Worcester-<br>shire,   | 620,000                      | 21,000               | Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, Bewd-<br>ly, Stourbridge, Kidderminster—6000<br>souls, Pershore.                                                               |
| Staffordshire,         | —                            | 24,000               | Stafford, Litchfield, Newcastle-under-<br>line, Wolverhampton, Rugely, Bur-<br>ton, Uttoxeter, Stone.                                                         |
| Shropshire,            | —                            | 22,500               | Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgenorth, Wen-<br>lock, Bishop's Castle, Whitchurch,<br>Oswestry, Wem, Newport.                                                        |
| Cheshire,              | 720,000                      | 25,000               | Chester, Nantwich, Macclesfield, Mal-<br>pas, Northwich, Middlewich, Sand-<br>back, Congleton, Knotsford, Frodi-<br>sham, Haulton.                            |

Hereford-



| Shires.         | Area in English Acres. | Number of Houses. | Towns.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
|-----------------|------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Herefordshire,  | —                      | 16,000            | Hereford, Lemster, Weobly, Ledbury, Kington, Ross.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
| Yorkshire,      | 3,770,000              | 108,000           | York, Leeds, Wakefield Hallifax—50,000 souls, Rippon, Pontefract, Hull, Richmond, Scarborough, Boroughbridge, Malton, Sheffield, Doncaster, Whitby, Beverly, Northallerton, Burlington, Knaresborough, Barnesley, Sherborn, Bradford, Tadcaster, Skipton, Wetherby, Ripley, Heyden, Howden, Thirske, Gifborough, Pickering, Yarum. |
| Durham,         | 610,000                | 16,000            | Durham—7500 souls, Stockton, Sunderland—30,000 souls, Stanhope, Barnard-Castle, Darlington, Hartlepool, Awkland.                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
| Lancashire,     | 1,150,000              | 40,000            | Lancaster, Manchester, Preston, Liverpool, Wigan, Warrington, Rochdale, Bury, Ormskirk, Hawkhead, Newton.                                                                                                                                                                                                                          |
| Westmoreland,   | 510,000                | 6,500             | Appleby, Kendal, Londsdale, Kirkby-Stephen, Orton, Ambleside, Burton, Milthorpe.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
| Cumberland,     | 1,040,000              | 20,000            | Carlisle, Penrith, Cockermouth, Whitehaven—12,000 souls, Ravenglas, Egremont, Keswick, Workington, Jerby.                                                                                                                                                                                                                          |
| Northumberland. | 1,031,000              | 23,000            | Newcastle, Tinnmouth, North-Shields, Morpeth, Alnwick, Hexham.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     |

WALES,

## W A L E S,

CONTAINS IN A POLITICAL SENSE TWELVE COUNTIES INCLUDING  
ANGLESEA, BUT, IN A GEOGRAPHICAL, ONLY ELEVEN.

| Shires.               | Areas.  | Houses. | Towns.                                                                     |
|-----------------------|---------|---------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Radnorshire,          | —       | 3,500   | Radnor, Prestean, Knighton.                                                |
| Brecknock-<br>shire,  | —       | 5,600   | Brecknock, Built, Hay.                                                     |
| Glamorgan-<br>shire,  | —       | 9,700   | Llandaff, Cardiff, Cowbridge, Neath,<br>Swansea.                           |
| Carmarthen-<br>shire, | —       | 2,800   | Carmarthen, Kidwelly, Llanidover, Llandilobawr, Langharn, Lanelthy.        |
| Pembroke-<br>shire,   | —       | 4,400   | Pembroke, Saint-David's, Haverford-<br>west, Tenby, Tiscard, Milfordhaven. |
| Cardigan-<br>shire,   | —       | 7,000   | Cardigan, Aberystwith, Llanbadarn-Va-<br>wer.                              |
| Montgomery-<br>shire, | —       | 5,700   | Montgomery, Llanvlylin, Welchpool.                                         |
| Merioneth-<br>shire,  | —       | 2,700   | Dolgelly, Bala, Harlech.                                                   |
| Carnarvon-<br>shire,  | —       | 2,800   | Bangor, Conway, Carnarvon, Pullilly.                                       |
| Denbigh-<br>shire,    | 410,000 | 6,400   | Denbigh, Wrexham, Ruthen.                                                  |
| Flintshire,           | 160,000 | 5,400   | Flint, Saint-Asaph, Holywell.                                              |

## NORTH-BRITAIN,

CONTAINS THIRTY-THREE SHIRES, OR, GEOGRAPHICALLY WITHOUT THE ISLANDS, THIRTY-ONE.

| Shires.                              | Territorics.                                                        | Towns.                                                                                                                                                     |
|--------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Roxborough,                          | Tiviotdale, Lidfdale, Eskdale, Euifdale.                            | Jedburgh, Kelfo.                                                                                                                                           |
| Berwick,                             | Merisdale, Lauderdale,                                              | Berwick, Dunfe, Lauder—250 souls.                                                                                                                          |
| Haddington, Edinburg,                | East-Lothian, Mid-Lothian                                           | Dunbar, Haddington, North-Berwick, Edinburgh, Muffelburg, Leith, Dalkeith.                                                                                 |
| Peebles, Selkirk, Dumfries,          | Tweeddale, Ettoric-forest, Nithisdale, Annandale, Part of Galloway, | Peebles. Selkirk. Dumfries. Annand—600 souls. Kircudbright.                                                                                                |
| Kircudbright, Wigton,                | West part of Galloway,                                              | Wigton, Stranraer, Whitehorn.                                                                                                                              |
| Aire,                                | Kyle, Carrick, Cunningham,                                          | Aire, Kilmarnock, Maybole, Stewarton, Saltcots, Balgenny, Irwin.                                                                                           |
| Renfrew,                             | Renfrew,                                                            | Renfrew, Paisley—12,000 souls, Port-Glasgow.                                                                                                               |
| Lanerk,                              | Clydesdale,                                                         | Glasgow, Hamilton, Lanerk, Rutherglin.                                                                                                                     |
| Linlithgow,                          | West-Lothian,                                                       | Linlithgow, Burroughstonness, Queensferry.                                                                                                                 |
| Stirling, Clacmannan, Kinrofs, Fife, | Stirling, Part of Fife, Part of Fife, Fife,                         | Stirling, Falkirk. Culrois, Clacmannan, Alloay. Kinrofs. Saint-Andrews—2000 souls, Cowper, Falkland, Kircaldy, Innerkithen, Ely, Burntisland, Dumfermline. |
| Perth,                               | Perth, Athol, Gowry, Broadalbin, Monteith, Strathern, Stormount,    | Perth—11,000 souls, Scone, Dumblain, Dunkeld.                                                                                                              |

Glenfield,



| Shires.     | Territories.                                                                                                       | Towns.                                                                                                             |
|-------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|             | Glenfield, Ray-north.                                                                                              |                                                                                                                    |
| Forfar,     | Forfar, Angus,                                                                                                     | Montrose, Forfar, Dundee—20,000<br>fouls, Arbroth, Brechin.                                                        |
| Kincardin,  | Merns,                                                                                                             | Kincardin, Bervie, Stonehive.                                                                                      |
| Aberdeen,   | Marr, Buchan,<br>Garioch, Strabogie,                                                                               | Old-Aberdeen, New-Aberdeen—16,000<br>fouls, Frazerburg, Peterhead, Kintore,<br>Strathbogie, Inverary, Old-Meldrum. |
| Bamff,      | Bamff, Strathdo-<br>vern, Boyne, Eu-<br>zy, Balveney,<br>Strathawin.                                               | Bamff, Cullen.                                                                                                     |
| Elgin,      | Murray, Strathspey,                                                                                                | Elgin, Forres.                                                                                                     |
| Nairne,     | Western part of<br>Murray,                                                                                         | Nairne,                                                                                                            |
| Cromartie,  | Cromartie,                                                                                                         | Cromartie.                                                                                                         |
| Inverness,  | Aird, Strathglaß,<br>Badenogh, Logha-<br>ber, Glenmori-<br>fon,                                                    | Inverness, Inverloghie, Fort-Augustus,<br>Boileau.                                                                 |
| Argyle,     | Argyle, Cowal,<br>Knapdale, Kintire,<br>Lorn.                                                                      | Inverary, Dunstaffenage, Killonmer,<br>Campbeltown.                                                                |
| Dumbarton,  | Lenox,                                                                                                             | Dumbarton,                                                                                                         |
| Rofs,       | Rofs, Loughbroom,<br>Loughcarren, Ard-<br>meanagh, Red-<br>castle, Ferrintosh,<br>Strathpeffer, Fer-<br>rindonald. | Taine, Dingwall, Fortrose, Rosamar-<br>kie, New-Kelfo.                                                             |
| Sutherland, | Strathnaver,<br>Sutherland,                                                                                        | Strathy, Dornock.                                                                                                  |
| Cathness,   | Cathness,                                                                                                          | Wick, Thurso.                                                                                                      |

## BISHOPRICS OF SOUTH-BRITAIN.

BESIDE two hundred and fifty-seven parishes in the diocese of Canterbury, a hundred others called Peculiars are subject to that see, which are situate in other dioceses, but exempt from the jurisdiction of the ordinary bishops. Of the parishes under the see of Winchester twenty-four are in Jersey and the other isles on the coast of Normandy.

| Bishops.                 | Annual<br>Revenue in<br>Pounds. | Whole<br>Number of<br>Parishes. | Improprate parishes out of<br>the whole number. |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------|
| Canterbury,              | 8,000                           | 257                             | —                                               |
| Saint-Asaph,             | 1,500                           | —                               | —                                               |
| Bangor,                  | 1,200                           | 107                             | 36                                              |
| Bath and Wells,          | 2,200                           | 388                             | 160                                             |
| Bristol,                 | 1,500                           | 236                             | 64                                              |
| Chichester,              | 2,600                           | 250                             | 112                                             |
| Coventry and Litchfield, | 2,800                           | 555                             | 250                                             |
| Saint Davids,            | 1,400                           | 308                             | 120                                             |
| Ely,                     | 4,000                           | 141                             | 75                                              |
| Exeter,                  | 2,700                           | 604                             | 239                                             |
| Glocester,               | 2,000                           | 236                             | 125                                             |
| Hereford,                | 3,000                           | 313                             | 162                                             |
| Landaff,                 | 1,600                           | 177                             | 98                                              |
| Lincoln,                 | 3,200                           | 1255                            | 177                                             |
| London,                  | 6,200                           | 622                             | 189                                             |
| Norwich,                 | 3,000                           | 1121                            | 385                                             |
| Oxford,                  | 2,800                           | 195                             | 88                                              |
| Peterborough,            | 1,700                           | 293                             | 91                                              |
| Rochester,               | 2,400                           | 98                              | 36                                              |
| Salisbury,               | 3,500                           | 544                             | 109                                             |
| Winchester,              | 7,400                           | 384                             | 131                                             |
| Worcester,               | 3,400                           | 241                             | 71                                              |
| York,                    | 7,000                           | 581                             | 336                                             |
| Carlisle,                | 2,800                           | 93                              | 18                                              |
| Chester,                 | 2,700                           | 256                             | 101                                             |
| Durham,                  | 8,700                           | 135                             | 87                                              |

## TABLES OF IRELAND.

| Counties.                 | Area in Irish Acres. | Returns Membs. to Parlt. | Number of Houses | Towns.                                                                                                                                      |
|---------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>Ulster Province.</i>   |                      |                          |                  |                                                                                                                                             |
| Armagh,                   | 181,450              | 6                        | 22,000           | Armagh, Lurgan, Blackwater-town, Portadown.                                                                                                 |
| Down,                     | 349,000              | 14                       | 36,700           | Downpatrick, Hillsborough, Newry—11,000 souls, Dro-more.                                                                                    |
| Antrim,                   | 387,200              | 12                       | 29,200           | Belfast—20,000 souls, Antrim, Carrickfergus, Lisburn, Ballymena, Ballymoney, Larne.                                                         |
| Londonderry,              | 319,000              | 8                        | 25,020           | Derry—10,000 souls, Coleraine, Newtown Limavaddy, Maghera, Dungiven, Magherafelt, Castledawson, Bel-laghy.                                  |
| Tyrone,                   | 468,000              | 10                       | 28,720           | Omagh, Dungannon, Coagh, Stewartstown, Cookstown, Pomeroy, Orritor, Aghne-cloy, Moy, Strabane, New-town-Stewart, Ardstraw, Gortin, Douglas. |
| Donegal,                  | 679,000              | 12                       | 23,550           | Ballyshannon, Lifford, Letter-kenny, Donegal, Raphoe, Killybegs.                                                                            |
| Fermanagh,                | 283,400              | 4                        | 12,000           | Enniskillen, Kesh, Lisnaskea, Maguire's-bridge, Newtown-Butler, Belleek, Garrison.                                                          |
| Cavan,                    | 301,000              | 6                        | 16,330           | Cavan, Cootehill, Belturbet, Killeshandra, Ballyhays, Bal-lyborough, King's Court, Swanlinbar.                                              |
| Monaghan,                 | 179,600              | 4                        | 21,140           | Monaghan, Clones, Carrick-macross, Ballybay, Castlebla-ney, Glaslough, Castlehane.                                                          |
| <i>Leinster Province.</i> |                      |                          |                  |                                                                                                                                             |
| Louth,                    | 110,750              | 12                       | 11,560           | Drogheda—10,500 souls, Dun-leer, Ardee, Castle-Belling-ham, Collon.                                                                         |
|                           |                      |                          |                  | Meath,                                                                                                                                      |



## TABLES OF IRELAND.

| Counties.                     | Area in Irish Acres. | Returns Membs. to Parlt. | Number of Houses. | Towns.                                                                                                                                                                                               |
|-------------------------------|----------------------|--------------------------|-------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Meath,                        | 328,000              | 14                       | 22,500            | Trim, Navan—4000 souls, Kells, Athboy, Slane, Duleek, Ratoath.                                                                                                                                       |
| Dublin,                       | 142,050              | 10                       | 25,600            | Dublin, Tallagh, Newcastle, Swords, Lusk, Balruddery, Rush, Skerries, Balbriggan, Clontarf, Glasnevin, Finglafs, Chapel-Izod, Leixlip, Lucan, Rathfarnham, Mil- town, Ringsend, Blackrock, Dunleary. |
| Wicklow,                      | 311,700              | 10                       | 11,600            | Wicklow, Bray, Arklow, Bles- ington, Dunlavin, Baltin- glafs, Carnew, Rathdrum.                                                                                                                      |
| Wexford,                      | 343,000              | 18                       | 22,100            | Wexford—9,000 souls, New- Rofs, Ferns, Gorey—1,100 souls, Taghmon.                                                                                                                                   |
| Kilkenny,                     | 300,400              | 16                       | 17,600            | Kilkenny—17,000 souls, Cas- tle-Durrow, Castletomer, Callen, Gowran, Knockto- pher, Thomaftown, New- market.                                                                                         |
| Carlow,                       | 137,000              | 6                        | 8,800             | Carlow, Tullow, Leighlin- bridge, Hacketftown, Clo- negal.                                                                                                                                           |
| Kildare,                      | 237,000              | 10                       | 11,250            | Naas, Athy, Monasterevan, Kil- dare.                                                                                                                                                                 |
| Queen's County,               | 235,400              | 8                        | 15,100            | Maryborough, Mountmellick, Mountrath, Portarlinton, Ballynakill, Stradbally.                                                                                                                         |
| King's County,                | 282,200              | 6                        | 13,600            | Philipftown, Birr, Banagher, Clara, Edenderry, Tulla- more, Raghera.                                                                                                                                 |
| Westmeath,                    | 231,600              | 10                       | 13,700            | Athlone, Mullingar, Moate- Grenogue, Kilbeggan, Kin- negad, Castlepollard.                                                                                                                           |
| Longford,                     | 134,200              | 10                       | 10,100            | Longford, Granard, Edge- worth's-town, Ballymahon, Lanesborough, Saint-Johns- town.                                                                                                                  |
| Connaught Prov.<br>Roscommon, | 346,800              | 8                        | 17,200            | Roscommon, Stroke's-town, Leitrim,                                                                                                                                                                   |

# TABLES OF IRELAND.

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| Counties.                | Area in Irish Acres. | Returns Membs. to Parl. | Number of Houses | Towns.                                                                                                      |
|--------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Leitrim,                 | 256,000              | 6                       | 10,080           | Boyle, Elphin, Castlereagh, Miltown-Pasf.<br>Carrick, Mohill, Manor-Hamilton, Dromahaire, Drumfnaw.         |
| Sligo,                   | 247,000              | 4                       | 11,540           | Sligo—8,500 souls.                                                                                          |
| Mayo,                    | 790,600              | 4                       | 28,000           | Cattlebar, Ballinrobe, Newport Pratt, Westport, Killala, Foxford, Ballina.                                  |
| Galway,                  | 990,000              | 8                       | 28,300           | Galway—12,000 souls, Tuam, Loughrea, Athenry, Ballinasloe, Eyrecourt.                                       |
| <i>Munster Province.</i> |                      |                         |                  |                                                                                                             |
| Clare,                   | 476,000              | 4                       | 17,500           | Ennis, Corrofin, Innistymon, Sixmile-bridge, Killaloe.                                                      |
| Limerick,                | 386,800              | 8                       | 28,800           | Limerick, 44,000 souls, Rathkeal, Kilmallock, Castleconnel.                                                 |
| Kerry,                   | 647,700              | 8                       | 19,400           | Tralee, Killarney, Miltown, Dingle.                                                                         |
| Cork,                    | 1,048,800            | 26                      | 77,000           | Cork—90,000 souls, Bantry, Kinsale, Youghal, Bandon, Micheltown, Cloyne, Ross.                              |
| Waterford,               | 262,800              | 10                      | 18,900           | Waterford—36,000 souls, Passage, New-Geneva, Dungarvan, Tramore, Tallow, Lismore, Cappoquin, Kilmac-thomas. |
| Tipperary,               | 555,000              | 8                       | 30,800           | Clonmell, Carrick, Cashel, Fethard, Tipperary, Cahir, Holycrofs, Thurles, Silvermines, Nenagh, Roscrea.     |

IN the following Table the Titles of the suffragan Bishops are placed under those of their respective Archbishops, the Number of Benefices in each Diocese, of vicarages the Rectories of which are lay impropriations, and of parishes wholly impropriate, is stated from Beaufort's Memoir: also the Revenues of the Prelates are stated from such Information as I could procure; but I believe the Statement in some instances under the reality.

| Prelates.                 | Benefices. | Rectories impropriate. | Wholly impropriate. | Annual Revenue in Pounds Sterling. |
|---------------------------|------------|------------------------|---------------------|------------------------------------|
| Armagh,                   | 69         | 12                     | 9                   | 8,000                              |
| Dromore,                  | 24         | 3                      | 0                   | 2,000                              |
| Down and Connor,          | 65         | 17                     | 15                  | 2,300                              |
| Derry,                    | 43         | 1                      | 0                   | 7,300                              |
| Raphoe,                   | 25         | 3                      | 0                   | 2,600                              |
| Clogher,                  | 40         | 5                      | 0                   | 4,000                              |
| Kilmore,                  | 30         | 10                     | 0                   | 2,600                              |
| Meath,                    | 99         | 64                     | 35                  | 3,400                              |
| Dublin,                   | 86         | 23                     | 3                   | 5,000                              |
| Kildare,                  | 31         | 31                     | 1                   | 2,600                              |
| Ferns and Leighlin,       | 79         | 66                     | 13                  | 3,000                              |
| Offory,                   | 56         | 37                     | 1                   | 2,000                              |
| Cathel and Emly,          | 47         | 28                     | 3                   | 4,000                              |
| Waterford and Lismore,    | 44         | 41                     | 3                   | 2,500                              |
| Cloyne,                   | 69         | 30                     | 14                  | 2,800                              |
| Cork and Ross,            | 64         | 24                     | 11                  | 2,700                              |
| Limerick,                 | 88         | 53                     | 3                   | 3,500                              |
| Ardfert and Aghadoe,      |            |                        |                     |                                    |
| Killaloe and Kilfenora,   | 50         | 24                     | 7                   | 2,300                              |
| Tuam,                     | 23         | 2                      | 0                   | 4,000                              |
| Clonfert and Kilmacduagh, | 60         | 0                      | 0                   | 2,400                              |
| Elphin,                   | 29         | 46                     | 1                   | 3,700                              |
| Killala and Achonry,      | 20         | 24                     | 0                   | 2,900                              |
| Ardagh united to Tuam,    | 24         | 18                     | 1                   |                                    |



## TABLE OF ISLANDS.

| Islands.                    | Towns.                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Wight,<br>Anglesea,<br>Man, | Newport, Yarmouth, Cowes.<br>Beaumaris, Holyhead, Newburg,<br>Castletown, Peele, Douglas, Ramsey.                                                                                                                                                                                           |
| NAMES OF ISLANDS.           |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
| Scilly Isles,               | St. Mary's, St. Agnes, Trefcaw, St. Martin's,<br>St. Helens, Brechar, Sanfon, &c.                                                                                                                                                                                                           |
| The Hebudes,                | Arran, Bute, Ilay, Iona, Mull, Sky, Gigha,<br>Jura, Oransay, Colonsay, Tir-I, Lismore,<br>Scarba, Col, Rum, Staffa, Lewes, Bernera,<br>Pabba, North-Vift, South-Vift, Borera, Ben-<br>becula, Barra, Hirta. <i>Towns</i> , Rothsay in<br>Bute, Stornoway in Lewes.                          |
| The Orkneys,                | South-Ronaldsha, Swinna, Hoy, Burra, Lam-<br>holm, Flotta, Faira, Cava, Gramsey, Pomo-<br>na, Copinsha, Shapinsha,, Damsfey, Inhal-<br>lo, Stronfa, Sanda, North-Ronaldsha, Eda,<br>Roufa, Wyre, Gairfa, Eglesha, North-Faira,<br>Westra, Papa-Westra. <i>Town</i> , Kirkwall in<br>Pomona. |
| Shetland Isles,             | Mainland, Burray, Hours, Brassay, Whaley,<br>Valey, Papa, Meikle-Roo, Glassa, Biga,<br>Samphra, Yell, Fetlor, Unlt. <i>Town</i> , Lar-<br>wick in Mainland.                                                                                                                                 |

# LIST OF ISLANDS

The following is a list of the islands in the group, with their names in English and the names of the principal inhabitants in the original language.

| Name of Island                            | Principal Inhabitants |
|-------------------------------------------|-----------------------|
| Newport, formerly Oahu                    | Waipaho               |
| Bismarck, formerly New Britain            | Bismarck              |
| Solomon, formerly New Guinea              | Solomon               |
| St. Michael, formerly St. Michael         | St. Michael           |
| St. John, formerly St. John               | St. John              |
| St. Peter, formerly St. Peter             | St. Peter             |
| St. Paul, formerly St. Paul               | St. Paul              |
| St. George, formerly St. George           | St. George            |
| St. James, formerly St. James             | St. James             |
| St. Andrew, formerly St. Andrew           | St. Andrew            |
| St. David, formerly St. David             | St. David             |
| St. Elizabeth, formerly St. Elizabeth     | St. Elizabeth         |
| St. Thomas, formerly St. Thomas           | St. Thomas            |
| St. Vincent, formerly St. Vincent         | St. Vincent           |
| St. Lucia, formerly St. Lucia             | St. Lucia             |
| St. Kitts, formerly St. Kitts             | St. Kitts             |
| St. Eustace, formerly St. Eustace         | St. Eustace           |
| St. Christopher, formerly St. Christopher | St. Christopher       |
| St. John, formerly St. John               | St. John              |
| St. Peter, formerly St. Peter             | St. Peter             |
| St. Paul, formerly St. Paul               | St. Paul              |
| St. George, formerly St. George           | St. George            |
| St. James, formerly St. James             | St. James             |
| St. Andrew, formerly St. Andrew           | St. Andrew            |
| St. David, formerly St. David             | St. David             |

